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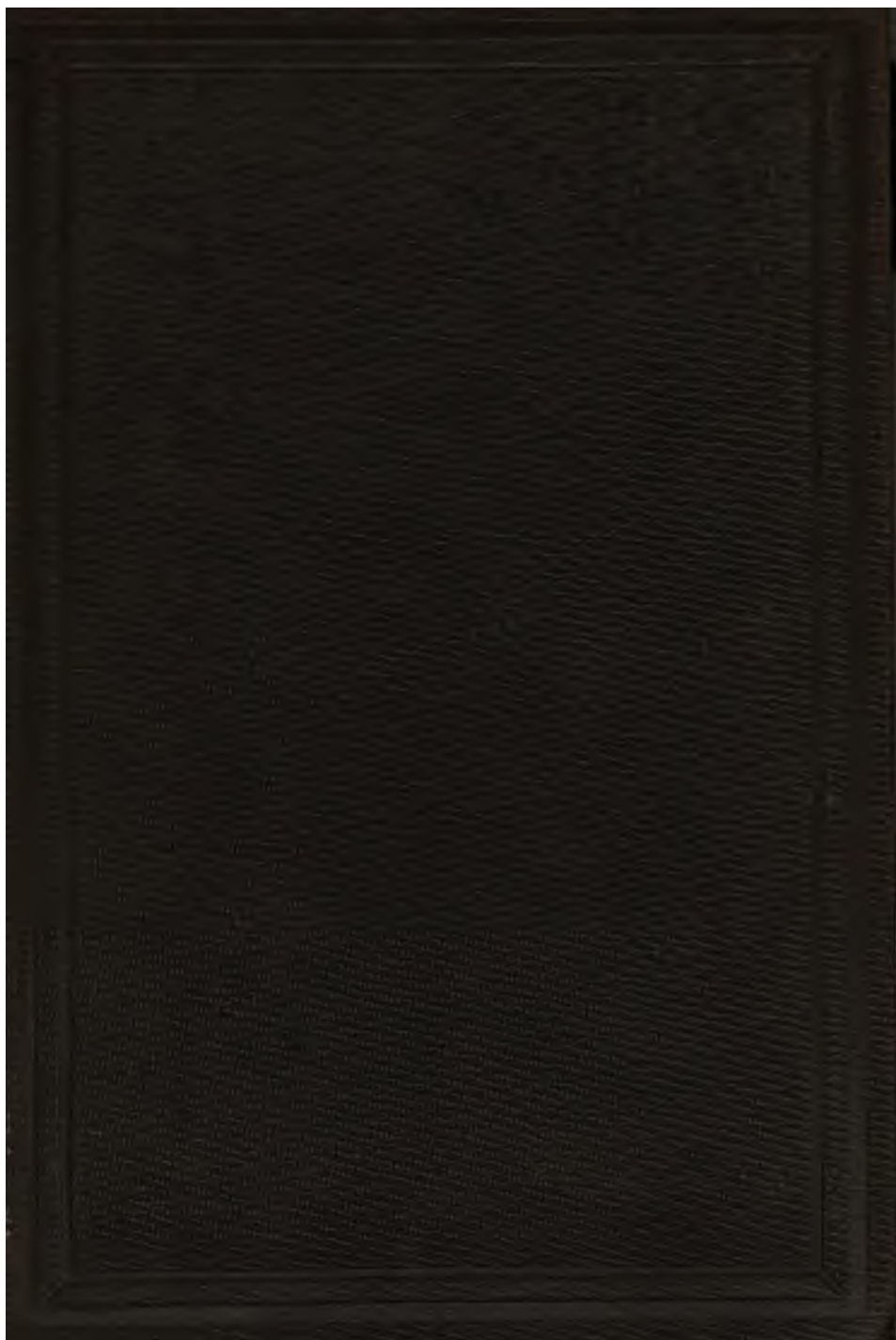
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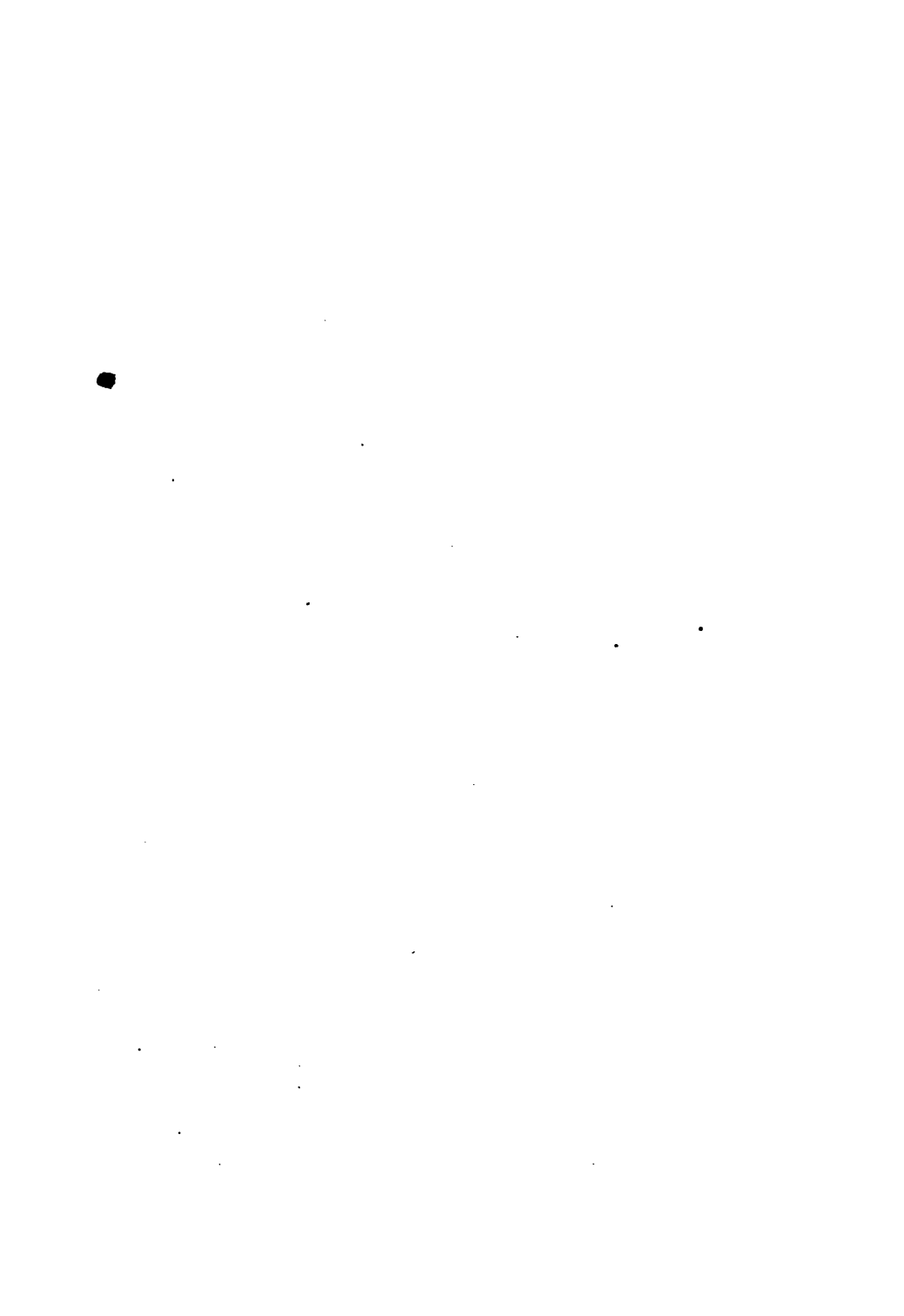




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SPHERICAL

**Cambridge:**

**PRINTED BY C. J. CLAY, M.A.  
AT THE UNIVERSITY PRESS.**

# SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY

For the Use of Colleges and Schools

WITH NUMEROUS EXAMPLES

1

I. TODHUNTER,

FELLOW AND ASSISTANT TUTOR OF TRINITY COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

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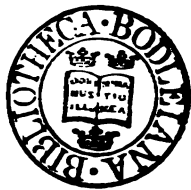
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## P R E F A C E.

THE present work is constructed on the same plan as my treatise on Plane Trigonometry, to which it is intended as a sequel; it contains all the propositions usually included under the head of Spherical Trigonometry, together with a large collection of examples for exercise. In the course of the work reference is made to preceding writers from whom assistance has been obtained; besides these writers I have consulted the treatises on Trigonometry by Lardner, Lefebure de Fourcy, and Snowball, and the treatise on Geometry published in the Library of Useful Knowledge. The examples have been chiefly selected from the University and College Examination Papers.

In the account of Napier's Rules of Circular Parts an explanation has been given of a method of proof devised by Napier, which seems to have been overlooked by most modern writers on the subject. I have had the advantage of access to an unprinted Memoir on this point by the late R. L. Ellis of Trinity College; Mr Ellis had in fact rediscovered for himself Napier's own method. For the use of this Memoir and for some valuable references on the subject I am indebted to the Dean of Ely.

Considerable labour has been bestowed on the text in order to render it comprehensive and accurate, and the examples have all been carefully verified; and thus I venture to hope that the work will be found useful by Students and Teachers.

I. TODHUNTER.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE,  
*August 15, 1859.*



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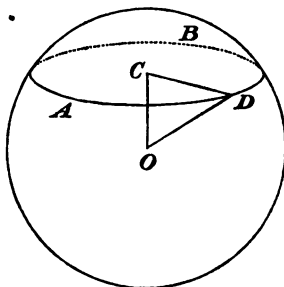


# SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY.

## I. GREAT AND SMALL CIRCLES.

1. A **SPHERE** is a solid bounded by a surface every point of which is equally distant from a fixed point which is called the *centre* of the sphere. The straight line which joins any point of the surface with the centre is called a *radius*. A straight line drawn through the centre and terminated both ways by the surface is called a *diameter*.

2. *The section of the surface of a sphere made by any plane is a circle.*



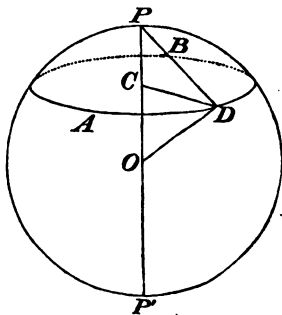
Let  $AB$  be the section of the surface of a sphere made by any plane,  $O$  the centre of the sphere. Draw  $OC$  perpendicular to the plane; take any point  $D$  in the section and join  $OD, CD$ . Since  $OC$  is perpendicular to the plane, the angle  $OCD$  is a right angle; therefore  $CD = \sqrt{(OD^2 - OC^2)}$ . Now  $O$  and  $C$  are fixed points, so that  $OC$  is constant; and  $OD$  is constant, being the radius of the sphere; hence  $CD$  is constant. Thus all points in the plane section are equally distant from the fixed point  $C$ ; therefore the section is a circle of which  $C$  is the centre.

3. The section of the surface of a sphere by a plane is called a *great circle* if the plane passes through the centre of the sphere, and a *small circle* if the plane does not pass through the centre of the sphere. Thus the radius of a great circle is equal to the radius of the sphere.

4. Through the centre of a sphere and any two points on the surface a plane can be drawn; and only one plane can be drawn, except when the two points are the extremities of a diameter of the sphere, and then an infinite number of such planes can be drawn. Hence only one great circle can be drawn through two given points on the surface of a sphere, except when the points are the extremities of a diameter of the sphere. When only one great circle can be drawn through two given points, the great circle is unequally divided at the two points; we shall for brevity speak of the shorter of the two arcs as *the* arc of a great circle joining the two points.

5. The *axis* of any circle of a sphere is that diameter of the sphere which is perpendicular to the plane of the circle; the extremities of the axis are called the *poles* of the circle. The poles of a great circle are equally distant from the plane of the circle. The poles of a small circle are not equally distant from the plane of the circle; they may be called respectively the *nearer* and *farther* pole; sometimes the nearer pole is for brevity called *the* pole.

6. *A pole of a circle is equally distant from every point of the circumference of the circle.*

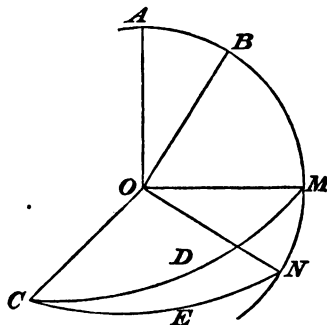


Let  $O$  be the centre of the sphere,  $AB$  any circle of the sphere,  $C$  the centre of the circle,  $P$  and  $P'$  the poles of the circle. Take

any point  $D$  in the circumference of the circle; join  $CD, OD, PD$ . Then  $PD = \sqrt{(PC^2 + CD^2)}$ ; and  $PC$  and  $CD$  are constant, therefore  $PD$  is constant. Suppose a great circle to pass through the points  $P$  and  $D$ ; then the chord  $PD$  is constant, and therefore the arc of a great circle intercepted between  $P$  and  $D$  is constant for all positions of  $D$  on the circle  $AB$ .

Thus the distance of a pole of a circle from every point of the circumference of the circle is constant, whether that distance be measured by the straight line joining the points, or by the arc of a great circle intercepted between the points.

7. *The angle subtended at the centre of a sphere by the arc of a great circle which joins the poles of two great circles is equal to the inclination of the planes of the great circles.*



Let  $O$  be the centre of the sphere,  $CD, CE$  the great circles intersecting in  $C$ ,  $A$  and  $B$  the poles of  $CD$  and  $CE$  respectively.

Draw a great circle through  $A$  and  $B$ , meeting  $CD$  and  $CE$  in  $M$  and  $N$  respectively. Then  $AO$  is perpendicular to  $OC$ , which is a line in the plane  $OCD$ ; and  $BO$  is perpendicular to  $OC$ , which is a line in the plane  $OCE$ ; therefore  $OC$  is perpendicular to the plane  $AOB$  (Euclid, xi. 4); and therefore  $OC$  is perpendicular to the lines  $OM$  and  $ON$ , which are in the plane  $AOB$ . Hence  $MON$  is the angle of inclination of the planes  $OCD$  and  $OCE$ . And the angle  $AOB = AOM - BOM = BON - BOM = MON$ .

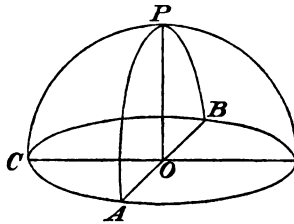


8. By the angle between two great circles is meant *the angle of inclination of the planes of the circles*. Thus, in the figure of the preceding Article, the angle between the great circles  $CD$  and  $CE$  is the angle  $MON$ . In the figure to Art. 6, since  $PO$  is perpendicular to the plane  $ACB$ , every plane which contains  $PO$  is at right angles to the plane  $ACB$ . Hence the angle between any circle and a great circle which passes through its poles is a right angle.

9. *Two great circles bisect each other.*

For since the plane of each great circle passes through the centre of the sphere, the line of intersection of these planes is a diameter of the sphere, and therefore also a diameter of each great circle; therefore the great circles are bisected at the points where they meet.

10. *The arc of a great circle which is drawn from a pole of a great circle to any point in its circumference is a quadrant, and is at right angles to the circumference.*



Let  $P$  be a pole of the great circle  $ABC$ ; the arc  $PA$  is a quadrant and at right angles to  $ABC$ .

For let  $O$  be the centre of the sphere, and draw  $PO$ . Then  $PO$  is at right angles to the plane  $ABC$ , because  $P$  is the pole of

$ABC$ , therefore  $POA$  is a right angle, and the arc  $PA$  is a quadrant. And because  $PO$  is at right angles to the plane  $ABC$ , the angle between the planes  $POA$  and  $ABC$  is a right angle; therefore the arc  $PA$  is at right angles to  $AC$ .

11. *If the arcs of great circles joining a point  $P$  on the surface of a sphere with two other points  $A$  and  $C$  on the surface of the sphere which are not at opposite extremities of a diameter be each of them equal to a quadrant,  $P$  is a pole of the great circle through  $A$  and  $C$ . (See figure of preceding Article.)*

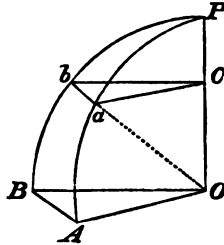
For suppose  $PA$  and  $PC$  to be quadrants and  $O$  the centre of the sphere; then since  $PA$  and  $PC$  are quadrants, the angles  $POC$  and  $POA$  are right angles. Hence  $PO$  is at right angles to the plane  $AOC$ , and  $P$  is a pole of the great circle  $AC$ .

12. Great circles which pass through the poles of a great circle are called *secondaries* to that circle. Thus, in the figure of Art. 7 the point  $C$  is a pole of  $ABMN$ , and therefore  $CM$  and  $CN$  are parts of secondaries to  $ABMN$ . And the angle between  $CM$  and  $CN$  is measured by  $MN$ ; that is, *the angle between any two great circles is measured by the arc they intercept on the great circle to which they are secondaries.*

13. *If from a point on the surface of a sphere there can be drawn two arcs of great circles, not parts of the same great circle, which are at right angles to a given circle, that point is a pole of the circle.*

For, since the two arcs are at right angles to the given circle, the planes of these arcs are at right angles to the plane of the given circle, and therefore the line in which they intersect is perpendicular to the plane of the given circle, and is therefore the **axis** of the given circle; hence the point from which the arcs are drawn is a pole of the circle.

14. To compare the arc of a small circle subtending any angle at the centre of the circle with the arc of a great circle subtending the same angle at its centre.



Let  $ab$  be the arc of a small circle,  $C$  the centre of the circle,  $P$  the pole of the circle,  $O$  the centre of the sphere. Through  $P$  draw the great circles  $PaA$  and  $PbB$ , meeting the great circle of which  $P$  is a pole, in  $A$  and  $B$  respectively; draw  $Ca$ ,  $Cb$ ,  $OA$ ,  $OB$ . Then  $Ca$ ,  $Cb$ ,  $OA$ ,  $OB$  are all perpendicular to  $OP$ , because the planes  $aCb$  and  $AOB$  are perpendicular to  $OP$ ; therefore  $Ca$  is parallel to  $OA$ , and  $Cb$  is parallel to  $OB$ . Therefore the angle  $aCb =$  the angle  $AOB$  (Euclid, xi. 10). Hence,

$$\frac{\text{arc } ab}{\text{radius } Ca} = \frac{\text{arc } AB}{\text{radius } OA}, \text{ (Plane Trigonometry, Art. 18);}$$

therefore, 
$$\frac{\text{arc } ab}{\text{arc } AB} = \frac{Ca}{OA} = \frac{Ca}{Oa} = \sin POa.$$

## II. SPHERICAL TRIANGLES.

15. Spherical Trigonometry investigates the relations which subsist between the angles of the plane faces which form a solid angle and the angles at which the plane faces are inclined to each other.

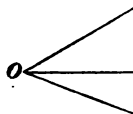
16. Suppose that the angular point of a solid angle is made the centre of a sphere; then the planes which form the solid angle

## SPHERICA

will cut the sphere in arcs of  
 formed on the surface of the  
*triangle* if it is bounded by *th*  
 the case when the solid angle  
 plane angles. If the solid an  
*more than three* plane angles,  
 surface of the sphere is bounde  
 circles, and is called a *spherical*

17. The three arcs of gr  
 triangle are called the *sides* of  
 formed by the arcs at the poin  
*angles* of the spherical triangle.

18. Thus, let  $O$  be the cen  
 angle formed at  $O$  by the me



$AB, BC, CA$  be the arcs of gr  
 the sphere; then  $ABC$  is a sp  
 $BC, CA$  are its sides. Suppos  
 $AB$ , and  $Ac$  the tangent at  $A$   
 drawn from  $A$  *towards*  $B$  and  
 is one of the angles of the sp  
 formed in like manner at  $B$  &  
 spherical triangle.

19. The principal part of  
 consists of theorems relating to

necessary to obtain an accurate conception of a spherical triangle and its parts.

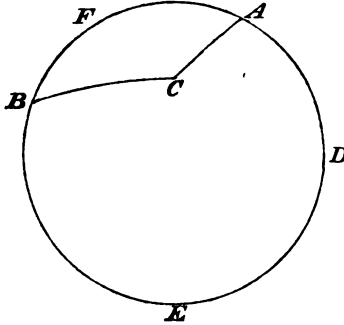
It will be seen that what are called *sides* of a spherical triangle are really *arcs* of great circles, and these arcs are proportional to the three plane angles which form the solid angle corresponding to the spherical triangle. Thus, in the figure of the preceding Article, the arc  $AB$  forms one side of the spherical triangle  $ABC$ , and the plane angle  $AOB$  is measured by the fraction  $\frac{\text{arc } AB}{\text{radius } OA}$ ; and thus the arc  $AB$  is proportional to the angle  $AOB$  so long as we keep to the same sphere.

The *angles* of a spherical triangle are the inclinations of the plane faces which form the solid angle; for since  $Ab$  and  $Ac$  are both perpendicular to  $OA$ , the angle  $bAc$  is the angle of inclination of the planes  $OAB$  and  $OAC$ .

20. The letters  $A, B, C$  are generally used to denote the *angles* of a spherical triangle, and the letters  $a, b, c$  are used to denote the *sides*. As in the case of plane triangles,  $A, B,$  and  $C$  may be used to denote the numerical values of the angles expressed in *terms of any unit*, provided we understand distinctly what the unit is. Thus, if the angle  $C$  be a right angle, we may say that  $C = 90^\circ$ , or that  $C = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , according as we adopt for the unit a degree or the angle subtended at the centre by an arc equal to the radius. So also, as the sides of a spherical triangle are proportional to the angles subtended at the centre of the sphere, we may use  $a, b, c$  to denote the numerical values of those angles in terms of any unit. We shall usually suppose both the angles and sides of a spherical triangle expressed in *circular measure*. (*Plane Trigonometry*, Art. 20.)

21. In future, unless the contrary be distinctly stated, any arc drawn on the surface of a sphere will be supposed to be an arc of a great circle.

22. In spherical triangles each side is restricted to be less than a semicircle; this is of course a *convention*, and it is adopted because it is found convenient.



Thus, in the figure, the arc  $ADEB$  is greater than a semicircle, and we might, if we pleased, consider  $ADEB$ ,  $AC$  and  $BC$  as forming a triangle, having its angular points at  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ . But we agree to exclude such triangles from our consideration; and the triangle having its angular points at  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ , will be understood to be that formed by  $AFB$ ,  $BC$  and  $CA$ .

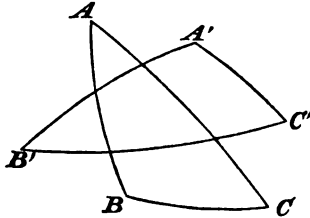
23. From the restriction of the preceding Article it will follow that *any angle of a spherical triangle is less than two right angles.*

For suppose a triangle formed by  $BC$ ,  $CA$  and  $BEDA$  having the angle  $BCA$  greater than two right angles. Then suppose  $D$  to denote the point in which the arc  $BC$ , if produced, will meet  $AE$ ; then  $BED$  is a semicircle by Art. 9, and therefore  $BEA$  is greater than a semicircle; thus the proposed triangle is not one of those which we consider.

### III. SPHERICAL GEOMETRY.

24. The relations between the sides and angles of a Spherical Triangle, which are investigated in treatises on Spherical Trigonometry, are chiefly such as involve the *Trigonometrical Functions* of the sides and angles. Before proceeding to these, however, we shall collect, under the head of Spherical Geometry, some theorems which involve the sides and angles *themselves*, and not their trigonometrical ratios.

25. *Polar Triangle.* Let  $ABC$  be any spherical triangle, and let the points  $A'$ ,  $B'$ ,  $C'$  be those poles of the arcs  $BC$ ,  $CA$ ,  $AB$



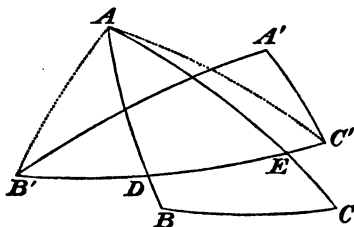
respectively which lie upon the same sides of them as the opposite angles  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ ; then the triangle  $A'B'C'$  is said to be the *polar triangle* of the triangle  $ABC$ .

Since there are two poles for each side of a spherical triangle, *eight* triangles can be formed having for their angular points poles of the sides of the given triangle; but there is only one triangle in which these poles  $A'$ ,  $B'$ ,  $C'$  lie towards the same parts with the corresponding angles  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ ; and this is the triangle which is known under the name of the *polar triangle*.

The triangle  $ABC$  is called the *primitive* triangle with respect to the triangle  $A'B'C'$ .

26. *If one triangle be the polar triangle of another, the latter will be the polar triangle of the former.*

Let  $ABC$  be any triangle,  $A'B'C'$  the polar triangle; then  $ABC$  will be the polar triangle of  $A'B'C'$ .



For since  $B'$  is a pole of  $AC$ , the arc  $AB'$  is a quadrant (Art. 10); and since  $C'$  is a pole of  $BA$ , the arc  $AC'$  is a quadrant; therefore  $A$  is a pole of  $B'C'$  (Art. 11). Also  $A$  and  $A'$  are on the same side of  $B'C'$ ; for  $A$  and  $A'$  are by hypothesis on the same side of  $BC$ , therefore  $A'A$  is less than a quadrant; and since  $A$  is a pole of  $B'C'$  and  $AA'$  is less than a quadrant,  $A$  and  $A'$  are on the same side of  $B'C'$ .

Similarly it may be shown that  $B$  is a pole of  $C'A'$ , and that  $B$  and  $B'$  are on the same side of  $C'A'$ ; also that  $C$  is a pole of  $A'B'$ , and that  $C$  and  $C'$  are on the same side of  $A'B'$ . Thus  $ABC$  is the polar triangle of  $A'B'C'$ .

27. *The sides and angles of the polar triangle are respectively the supplements of the angles and sides of the primitive triangle.*

For let the arc  $B'C'$ , produced if necessary, meet the arcs  $AB$ ,  $AC$ , produced if necessary, in the points  $D$  and  $E$  respectively; then since  $A$  is a pole of  $B'C'$ , the spherical angle  $A$  is measured by the arc  $DE$  (Art. 12). But  $B'E$  and  $C'D$  are each quadrants; therefore  $DE$  and  $B'C'$  are together equal to a semicircle; that is, the angle subtended by  $B'C'$  at the centre of the sphere is the



supplement of the angle  $A$ . This we may express for shortness thus;  $B'C'$  is the supplement of  $A$ . Similarly it may be shewn that  $C'A'$  is the supplement of  $B$ , and  $A'B'$  the supplement of  $C$ .

And since  $ABC$  is the polar triangle of  $A'B'C'$ , it follows that  $BC$ ,  $CA$ ,  $AB$  are respectively the supplements of  $A'$ ,  $B'$ ,  $C'$ ; that is,  $A'$ ,  $B'$ ,  $C'$  are respectively the supplements of  $BC$ ,  $CA$ ,  $AB$ .

From these properties a primitive triangle and its polar triangle are sometimes called *supplemental triangles*.

Thus, if  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ ,  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$  denote respectively the angles and sides of a spherical triangle all expressed in circular measure, and  $A'$ ,  $B'$ ,  $C'$ ,  $a'$ ,  $b'$ ,  $c'$  those of the polar triangle, we have

$$\begin{aligned} A' &= \pi - a, & B' &= \pi - b, & C' &= \pi - c, \\ a' &= \pi - A, & b' &= \pi - B, & c' &= \pi - C. \end{aligned}$$

28. The preceding result is of great importance; for if any general theorem be demonstrated with respect to the sides and angles of any spherical triangle it holds of course for the polar triangle also. *Thus any such theorem will remain true when the angles are changed into the supplements of the corresponding sides and the sides into the supplements of the corresponding angles.* We shall see several examples of this principle in the next chapter.

29. *Any two sides of a spherical triangle are together greater than the third side.* (See fig. to Art. 18.)

For any two of the three plane angles which form the solid angle at  $O$  are together greater than the third (Euclid, xi. 20). Therefore any two of the arcs  $AB$ ,  $BC$ ,  $CA$ , are together greater than the third.

From this proposition it is obvious that any side of a spherical triangle is greater than the difference of the other two.

30. *The sum of the three sides of a spherical triangle is less than the circumference of a great circle.* (See fig. to Art. 18.)

For the sum of the three plane angles which form the solid angle at  $O$  is less than four right angles (Euclid, XI. 21); therefore

$$\frac{AB}{OA} + \frac{BC}{OA} + \frac{CA}{OA} \text{ is less than } 2\pi,$$

therefore,  $AB + BC + CA$  is less than  $2\pi \times OA$ ;

that is, the sum of the arcs is less than the circumference of a great circle.

31. The propositions contained in the preceding two Articles may be extended. Thus, if there be any polygon which has each of its angles less than two right angles, *any one side is less than the sum of all the others*. This may be proved by repeated use of Art. 29. Suppose, for example, the figure has four sides, and let the angular points be denoted by  $A, B, C, D$ . Then

$$AB + BC \text{ is greater than } AC;$$

therefore,  $AB + BC + CD$  is greater than  $AC + CD$ ,

and *à fortiori* greater than  $AD$ .

Again, if there be any polygon which has each of its angles less than two right angles, *the sum of its sides will be less than the circumference of a great circle*. This follows from Euclid, XI. 21, in the manner shewn in Art. 30.

32. *The three angles of a spherical triangle are together greater than two right angles and less than six right angles.*

Let  $A, B, C$  be the *angles* of a spherical triangle; let  $a', b', c'$  be the *sides* of the polar triangle. Then by Art. 30,

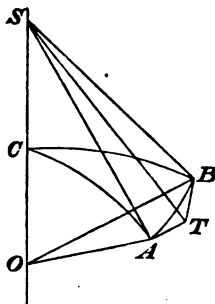
$$a' + b' + c' \text{ is less than } 2\pi,$$

that is,  $\pi - A + \pi - B + \pi - C$  is less than  $2\pi$ ;

therefore,  $A + B + C$  is greater than  $\pi$ .

And since each of the angles  $A, B, C$  is less than  $\pi$ , the sum  $A + B + C$  is less than  $3\pi$ .

33. *The angles at the base of an isosceles spherical triangle are equal.*



Let  $ABC$  be a spherical triangle having  $AC = BC$ ; let  $O$  be the centre of the sphere. Draw tangents at the points  $A$  and  $B$  to the arcs  $AC$  and  $BC$  respectively; these will meet  $OC$  produced in the same point  $S$ , and  $AS$  will be equal to  $BS$ .

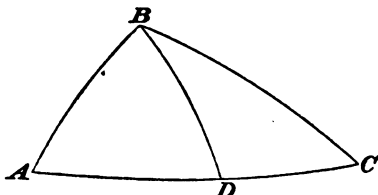
Draw tangents  $AT$ ,  $BT$  at the points  $A$ ,  $B$  to the arc  $AB$ ; then  $AT = TB$ ; join  $TS$ . In the two triangles  $SAT$ ,  $SBT$  the sides  $SA$ ,  $AT$ ,  $TS$  are equal to  $SB$ ,  $BT$ ,  $TS$  respectively; therefore the angle  $SAT$  is equal to the angle  $SBT$ ; and these are the angles at the base of the spherical triangle.

The figure supposes  $AC$  and  $BC$  to be less than quadrants; if they are greater than quadrants the tangents to  $AC$  and  $BC$  will meet on  $CO$  produced through  $O$  instead of through  $C$ , and the demonstration may be completed as before. If  $AC$  and  $BC$  are quadrants, the angles at the base are right angles by Arts. 8 and 11.

34. *If two angles of a spherical triangle are equal, the opposite sides are equal.*

Since the primitive triangle has two equal angles, the polar triangle has two equal sides; therefore in the polar triangle the angles opposite the equal sides are equal by Art. 33. Hence in the primitive triangle the sides opposite the equal angles are equal.

35. *If one angle of a spherical triangle be greater than another, the side opposite the greater angle is greater than the side opposite the other.*



Let  $ABC$  be a spherical triangle, and let the angle  $ABC$  be greater than the angle  $BAC$ ; then the side  $AC$  will be greater than the side  $BC$ . At  $B$  make the angle  $ABD$  equal to the angle  $BAC$ ; then  $BD$  is equal to  $AD$  (Art. 34), and  $BD + DC$  is greater than  $BC$  (Art. 29); therefore  $AD + DC$  is greater than  $BC$ ; that is,  $AC$  is greater than  $BC$ .

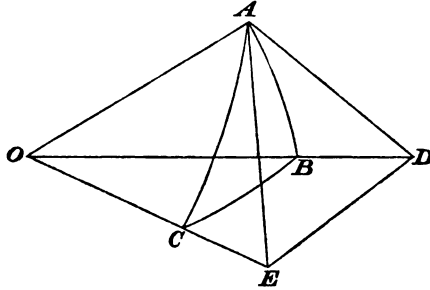
36. *If one side of a spherical triangle be greater than another, the angle opposite the greater side is greater than the angle opposite the other.*

This follows from the preceding Article by means of the polar triangle.

Or thus; suppose the side  $AC$  greater than the side  $BC$ , then the angle  $ABC$  will be greater than the angle  $BAC$ . For the angle  $ABC$  cannot be less than the angle  $BAC$  by Art. 35, and the angle  $ABC$  cannot be equal to the angle  $BAC$  by Art. 34; therefore the angle  $ABC$  must be greater than the angle  $BAC$ .

IV. RELATIONS BETWEEN THE TRIGONOMETRICAL  
FUNCTIONS OF THE SIDES AND ANGLES OF  
A SPHERICAL TRIANGLE.

37. To express the cosine of an angle of a triangle in terms of sines and cosines of the sides.



Let  $ABC$  be a spherical triangle,  $O$  the centre of the sphere. Let the tangent at  $A$  to the arc  $AC$  meet  $OC$  produced in  $E$ , and let the tangent at  $A$  to the arc  $AB$  meet  $OB$  produced in  $D$ ; join  $ED$ . Thus the angle  $EAD$  is the angle  $A$  of the spherical triangle, and the angle  $EOD$  measures the side  $a$ .

From the triangles  $ADE$  and  $ODE$  we have

$$DE^2 = AD^2 + AE^2 - 2AD \cdot AE \cos A,$$

$$DE^2 = OD^2 + OE^2 - 2OD \cdot OE \cos a;$$

also the angles  $OAD$  and  $OAE$  are right angles, so that  $OD^2 = OA^2 + AD^2$  and  $OE^2 = OA^2 + AE^2$ . Hence by subtraction we have

$$0 = 2OA^2 + 2AD \cdot AE \cos A - 2OD \cdot OE \cos a;$$

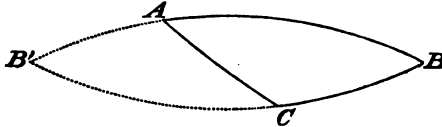
therefore, 
$$\cos a = \frac{OA}{OE} \cdot \frac{OA}{OD} + \frac{AE}{OE} \cdot \frac{AD}{OD} \cos A;$$

that is, 
$$\cos a = \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A.$$

Hence  $\cos A$  is expressed as required.

38. We have supposed, in the construction of the preceding article, that the sides which contain the angle  $A$  are less than quadrants, for we have assumed that the tangents at  $A$  meet  $OB$  and  $OC$  respectively produced. We must now shew that the formula obtained is true when these sides are not less than quadrants. This we shall do by special examination of the cases in which one side or each side is greater than a quadrant or equal to a quadrant.

(1) Suppose only one of the sides greater than a quadrant, for example,  $AB$ . Produce  $BA$  and  $BC$  to meet in  $B'$ ; and put  $AB' = c'$ ,  $CB' = a'$ .



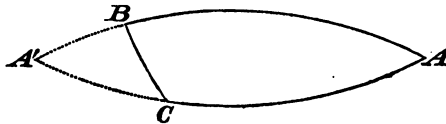
Then we have from the triangle  $AB'C$ , by what has been already proved,

$$\cos a' = \cos b \cos c' + \sin b \sin c' \cos B'AC;$$

but  $a' = \pi - a$ ,  $c' = \pi - c$ ,  $B'AC = \pi - A$ ; thus

$$\cos a = \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A.$$

(2) Suppose both the sides which contain the angle  $A$  to be greater than quadrants. Produce  $AB$  and  $AC$  to meet in  $A'$ ; put  $A'B = c'$ ,  $A'C = b'$ ; then from the triangle  $A'BC$ , as before,



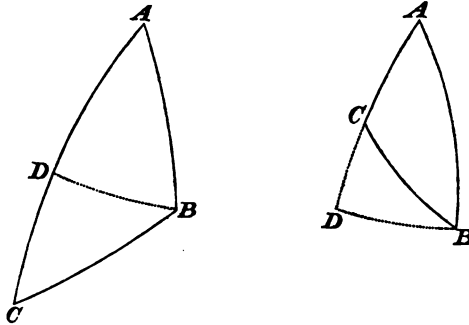
$$\cos a = \cos b' \cos c' + \sin b' \sin c' \cos A';$$

but  $b' = \pi - b$ ,  $c' = \pi - c$ ,  $A' = A$ ; thus,

$$\cos a = \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A.$$

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(3) Suppose that one of the sides which contain the angle  $A$  is a quadrant, for example,  $AB$ ; on  $AC$ , produced if necessary,



take  $AD$  equal to a quadrant and draw  $BD$ . If  $BD$  is a quadrant  $B$  is a pole of  $AC$  (Art. 11); in this case  $a = \frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $A = \frac{\pi}{2}$  as well as  $c = \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Thus the formula to be verified reduces to the identity

$0 = 0$ . If  $BD$  be not a quadrant, the triangle  $BDC$  gives

$$\cos a = \cos CD \cos BD + \sin CD \sin BD \cos CDB,$$

and  $\cos CDB = 0$ ,  $\cos CD = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - b\right) = \sin b$ ,  $\cos BD = \cos A$ ;

thus  $\cos a = \sin b \cos A$ ;

and this is what the formula in Art. 37 becomes when  $c = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

(4) Suppose that both the sides which contain the angle  $A$  are quadrants. The formula then becomes  $\cos a = \cos A$ ; and this is obviously true, for  $A$  is now the pole of  $BC$ , and thus  $A = a$ .

Thus the formula in Art. 37 is proved to be universally true.

39. The formula in Art. 37 may be applied to express the cosine of any angle of a triangle in terms of sines and cosines of the sides; thus we have the three formulæ,

$$\cos a = \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A,$$

$$\cos b = \cos c \cos a + \sin c \sin a \cos B,$$

$$\cos c = \cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b \cos C.$$

These may be considered as the fundamental equations of Spherical Trigonometry; we shall proceed to deduce various formulæ from them.

40. *To express the sine of an angle of a spherical triangle.*

We have  $\cos A = \frac{\cos a - \cos b \cos c}{\sin b \sin c}$ ;

therefore  $\sin^2 A = 1 - \left( \frac{\cos a - \cos b \cos c}{\sin b \sin c} \right)^2$

$$= \frac{(1 - \cos^2 b)(1 - \cos^2 c) - (\cos a - \cos b \cos c)^2}{\sin^2 b \sin^2 c}$$

$$= \frac{1 - \cos^2 a - \cos^2 b - \cos^2 c + 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c}{\sin^2 b \sin^2 c};$$

therefore  $\sin A = \frac{\sqrt{(1 - \cos^2 a - \cos^2 b - \cos^2 c + 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c)}}{\sin b \sin c}$ .

The radical on the right-hand side must be taken with the positive sign, because  $\sin b$ ,  $\sin c$ , and  $\sin A$  are all positive.

41. From the value of  $\sin A$  in the preceding article it follows that

$$\frac{\sin A}{\sin a} = \frac{\sin B}{\sin b} = \frac{\sin C}{\sin c},$$

for each of these is equal to the same expression, namely,

$$\frac{\sqrt{(1 - \cos^2 a - \cos^2 b - \cos^2 c + 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c)}}{\sin a \sin b \sin c}.$$

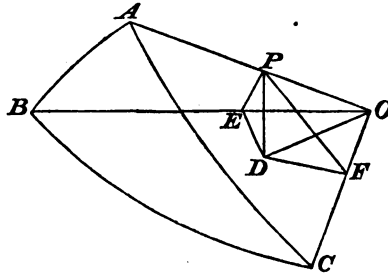
Thus the sines of the angles of a spherical triangle are proportional to the sines of the opposite sides. We will give an independent proof of this proposition in the following article.

42. *The sines of the angles of a spherical triangle are proportional to the sines of the opposite sides.*



## 20. RELATIONS BETWEEN THE TRIGONOMETRICAL FUNCTIONS

Let  $ABC$  be a spherical triangle,  $O$  the centre of the sphere. Take any point  $P$  in  $OA$ , draw  $PD$  perpendicular to the plane



$BOC$ , and from  $D$  draw  $DE$ ,  $DF$  perpendicular to  $OB$ ,  $OC$  respectively; join  $PE$ ,  $PF$ ,  $OD$ .

Since  $PD$  is perpendicular to the plane  $BOC$ , it is perpendicular to every line in that plane; hence

$$PE^2 = PD^2 + DE^2 = PO^2 - OD^2 + DE^2 = PO^2 - OE^2;$$

thus  $PEO$  is a right angle. Therefore  $PE = OP \sin POE = OP \sin c$ ; and  $PD = PE \sin PED = PE \sin B = OP \sin c \sin B$ .

Similarly,  $PD = OP \sin b \sin C$ ; therefore

$$OP \sin c \sin B = OP \sin b \sin C;$$

therefore 
$$\frac{\sin B}{\sin C} = \frac{\sin b}{\sin c}.$$

The figure supposes  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  all less than a right angle; it will be found on examination that the proof will hold when the figure is modified to meet any case which can occur. If, for instance,  $B$  alone is greater than a right angle, the point  $D$  will fall beyond  $OB$  instead of between  $OB$  and  $OC$ ; then  $PE$  will be the supplement of  $B$ , and thus  $\sin PED$  is still equal to  $\sin B$ .

43. To prove that  $\cot a \sin b = \cot A \sin C + \cos b \cos C$ .

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \cos a &= \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A, \\ \cos c &= \cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b \cos C, \\ \sin c &= \sin a \frac{\sin C}{\sin A}. \end{aligned}$$

Substitute the values of  $\cos c$  and  $\sin c$  in the first equation ; thus

$$\cos a = (\cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b \cos C) \cos b + \frac{\sin a \sin b \cos A \sin C}{\sin A} ;$$

by transposition

$$\cos a \sin^2 b = \sin a \sin b \cos b \cos C + \sin a \sin b \cot A \sin C ;$$

divide by  $\sin a \sin b$  ; thus

$$\cot a \sin b = \cos b \cos C + \cot A \sin C.$$

44. By interchanging the letters five other formulæ may be obtained like that in the preceding article ; the whole six formulæ will be as follows :

$$\cot a \sin b = \cot A \sin C + \cos b \cos C,$$

$$\cot b \sin a = \cot B \sin C + \cos a \cos C,$$

$$\cot b \sin c = \cot B \sin A + \cos c \cos A,$$

$$\cot c \sin b = \cot C \sin A + \cos b \cos A,$$

$$\cot c \sin a = \cot C \sin B + \cos a \cos B,$$

$$\cot a \sin c = \cot A \sin B + \cos c \cos B.$$

45. *To express the sine, cosine, and tangent, of half an angle of a triangle as functions of the sides.*

We have, by Art. 37,  $\cos A = \frac{\cos a - \cos b \cos c}{\sin b \sin c}$  ;

therefore  $1 - \cos A = 1 - \frac{\cos a - \cos b \cos c}{\sin b \sin c} = \frac{\cos(b-c) - \cos a}{\sin b \sin c}$  ;

therefore  $\sin^2 \frac{A}{2} = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}(a+b-c) \sin \frac{1}{2}(a-b+c)}{\sin b \sin c}$ .

Let  $2s = a + b + c$ , so that  $s$  is half the sum of the sides of the triangle ; then

$$a + b - c = 2s - 2c = 2(s - c), \quad a - b + c = 2s - 2b = 2(s - b) ;$$

thus  $\sin^2 \frac{A}{2} = \frac{\sin(s-b) \sin(s-c)}{\sin b \sin c}$ ,

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and 
$$\sin \frac{A}{2} = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\sin (s-b) \sin (s-c)}{\sin b \sin c} \right\}}.$$

Also, 
$$1 + \cos A = 1 + \frac{\cos a - \cos b \cos c}{\sin b \sin c} = \frac{\cos a - \cos (b+c)}{\sin b \sin c};$$

therefore

$$\cos^2 \frac{A}{2} = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} (a+b+c) \sin \frac{1}{2} (b+c-a)}{\sin b \sin c} = \frac{\sin s \sin (s-a)}{\sin b \sin c},$$

and 
$$\cos \frac{A}{2} = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\sin s \sin (s-a)}{\sin b \sin c} \right\}}.$$

From the expressions for  $\sin \frac{A}{2}$  and  $\cos \frac{A}{2}$  we deduce

$$\tan \frac{A}{2} = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\sin (s-b) \sin (s-c)}{\sin s \sin (s-a)} \right\}}.$$

The positive sign must be given to the radicals which occur in this article, because  $\frac{A}{2}$  is less than a right angle, and therefore its sine, cosine, and tangent are all positive.

46. Since  $\sin A = 2 \sin \frac{A}{2} \cos \frac{A}{2}$ , we obtain

$$\sin A = \frac{2}{\sin b \sin c} \left\{ \sin s \sin (s-a) \sin (s-b) \sin (s-c) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

It may be shewn that the expression for  $\sin A$  in Art. 40 agrees with the present by putting the numerator of that expression in factors, as in *Plane Trigonometry*, Art. 115. We shall find it convenient to use a symbol for the radical in the value of  $\sin A$ ; we shall denote it by  $n$ , so that

$$n^2 = \sin s \sin (s-a) \sin (s-b) \sin (s-c),$$

and 
$$4 n^2 = 1 - \cos^2 a - \cos^2 b - \cos^2 c + 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c.$$

47. *To express the cosine of a side of a triangle in terms of sines and cosines of the angles.*

In the formula of Art. 37 we may, by Art. 28, change the sides into the supplements of the corresponding angles and the angle into the supplement of the corresponding side; thus

$$\cos(\pi - A) = \cos(\pi - B) \cos(\pi - C) + \sin(\pi - B) \sin(\pi - C) \cos(\pi - a),$$

that is,  $\cos A = -\cos B \cos C + \sin B \sin C \cos a.$

Similarly  $\cos B = -\cos C \cos A + \sin C \sin A \cos b,$

and  $\cos C = -\cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B \cos c.$

48. The formulæ in Art. 44 will of course remain true when the angles and sides are changed into the supplements of the corresponding sides and angles respectively; it will be found, however, that no *new* formulæ are thus obtained, but only the *same* formulæ over again. This consideration will furnish some assistance in retaining those formulæ accurately in the memory.

49. *To express the sine, cosine, and tangent, of half a side of a triangle as functions of the angles.*

We have, by Art. 47,  $\cos a = \frac{\cos A + \cos B \cos C}{\sin B \sin C};$

therefore

$$1 - \cos a = 1 - \frac{\cos A + \cos B \cos C}{\sin B \sin C} = -\frac{\cos A + \cos(B + C)}{\sin B \sin C};$$

therefore  $\sin^2 \frac{a}{2} = -\frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B + C) \cos \frac{1}{2}(B + C - A)}{\sin B \sin C}.$

Let  $2S = A + B + C$ ; then  $B + C - A = 2(S - A)$ , therefore

$$\sin^2 \frac{a}{2} = -\frac{\cos S \cos(S - A)}{\sin B \sin C},$$

and  $\sin \frac{a}{2} = \sqrt{\left\{ -\frac{\cos S \cos(S - A)}{\sin B \sin C} \right\}}.$

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Also  $1 + \cos a = 1 + \frac{\cos A + \cos B \cos C}{\sin B \sin C} = \frac{\cos A + \cos (B - C)}{\sin B \sin C}$ ;

therefore

$$\cos^2 \frac{a}{2} = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A - B + C) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B - C)}{\sin B \sin C} = \frac{\cos (S - B) \cos (S - C)}{\sin B \sin C},$$

and  $\cos \frac{a}{2} = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\cos (S - B) \cos (S - C)}{\sin B \sin C} \right\}}$ .

Hence  $\tan \frac{a}{2} = \sqrt{\left\{ -\frac{\cos S \cos (S - A)}{\cos (S - B) \cos (S - C)} \right\}}$ .

The positive sign must be given to the radicals which occur in this article, because  $\frac{a}{2}$  is less than a right angle.

50. The expressions in the preceding article may also be obtained immediately from those given in Art. 45 by means of Art. 28.

It may be remarked that the values of  $\sin \frac{a}{2}$ ,  $\cos \frac{a}{2}$ , and  $\tan \frac{a}{2}$  are *real*. For  $S$  is greater than one right angle and less than three right angles by Art. 32; therefore  $\cos S$  is *negative*. And in the polar triangle any side is less than the sum of the other two; thus  $\pi - A$  is less than  $\pi - B + \pi - C$ ; therefore  $B + C - A$  is less than  $\pi$ ; therefore  $S - A$  is less than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , and  $B + C - A$  is algebraically greater than  $-\pi$ , so that  $S - A$  is algebraically greater than  $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ ; therefore  $\cos (S - A)$  is *positive*. Similarly also  $\cos (S - B)$  and  $\cos (S - C)$  are positive. Hence the values of  $\sin \frac{a}{2}$ ,  $\cos \frac{a}{2}$ , and  $\tan \frac{a}{2}$  are *real*.

51. Since  $\sin a = 2 \sin \frac{a}{2} \cos \frac{a}{2}$ , we obtain

$$\sin a = \frac{2}{\sin B \sin C} \{-\cos S \cos (S - A) \cos (S - B) \cos (S - C)\}^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

We shall use  $N$  for  $\{-\cos S \cos (S - A) \cos (S - B) \cos (S - C)\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .

OF THE SIDES AND ANGL

52. *To prove Napier's*

We have  $\frac{\sin A}{\sin a} =$

then, by a theorem of Algebr

$$m = \frac{\sin \cdot}{\sin}$$

and also  $m = \frac{\sin \cdot}{\sin}$

Now  $\cos A + \cos B \cos C = \sin$

and  $\cos B + \cos A \cos C = \sin$

therefore, by addition,

$$(\cos A + \cos B)(1 + \cos C)$$

therefore by (1) we have

$$\frac{\sin A + \sin B}{\cos A + \cos B} =$$

that is,  $\tan \frac{1}{2}(A + B)$

Similarly from (3) and (2)

$$\frac{\sin A - \sin B}{\cos A + \cos B} =$$

that is,  $\tan \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$

By writing  $\pi - A$  for  $a$ , &

$$\tan \frac{1}{2}(a + b) =$$

$$\tan \frac{1}{2}(a - b) =$$

The formulæ (4), (5), (6),  
portions or analogies, and ar

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*Analogies* ; the last two may be proved without recurring to the polar triangle by starting with the formulæ in Art. 39.

53. In equation (4) of the preceding article,  $\cos (a - b)$  and  $\cot \frac{C}{2}$  are necessarily positive quantities ; hence the equation shews that  $\tan \frac{1}{2}(A + B)$  and  $\cos \frac{1}{2}(a + b)$  are of the same sign ; thus  $\frac{1}{2}(A + B)$  and  $\frac{1}{2}(a + b)$  are either both less than a right angle or both greater than a right angle. This is expressed by saying that  $\frac{1}{2}(A + B)$  and  $\frac{1}{2}(a + b)$  are of the same affection.

54. *To prove Gauss's Theorems.*

We have  $\cos c = \cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b \cos C$  ; therefore,

$$1 + \cos c = 1 + \cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b (\cos^2 \frac{1}{2} C - \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C) \\ = \{1 + \cos(a - b)\} \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} C + \{1 + \cos(a + b)\} \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C ;$$

therefore  $\cos^2 \frac{1}{2} c = \cos^2 \frac{1}{2}(a - b) \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} C + \cos^2 \frac{1}{2}(a + b) \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C$ .

Similarly,  $\sin^2 \frac{1}{2} c = \sin^2 \frac{1}{2}(a - b) \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} C + \sin^2 \frac{1}{2}(a + b) \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C$ .

Now add unity to the square of each member of Napier's first two analogies ; hence by the formulæ just proved

$$\sec^2 \frac{1}{2}(A + B) = \frac{\cos^2 \frac{1}{2} c}{\cos^2 \frac{1}{2}(a + b) \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C},$$

$$\sec^2 \frac{1}{2}(A - B) = \frac{\sin^2 \frac{1}{2} c}{\sin^2 \frac{1}{2}(a + b) \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C}.$$

Extract the square roots ; thus, since  $\frac{1}{2}(A + B)$  and  $\frac{1}{2}(a + b)$  are of the same affection, we obtain

$$\cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2} c = \cos \frac{1}{2}(a + b) \sin \frac{1}{2} C \dots\dots\dots(1),$$

$$\cos \frac{1}{2}(A - B) \sin \frac{1}{2} c = \sin \frac{1}{2}(a + b) \sin \frac{1}{2} C \dots\dots\dots(2).$$

Multiply the first two of Napier's analogies respectively by these results ; thus

$$\sin \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2} c = \cos \frac{1}{2}(a - b) \cos \frac{1}{2} C \dots\dots\dots(3),$$

$$\sin \frac{1}{2}(A - B) \sin \frac{1}{2} c = \sin \frac{1}{2}(a - b) \cos \frac{1}{2} C \dots\dots\dots(4).$$

The last four formulæ are called *Gauss's Theorems*, although they are really due to Delambre.

55. The properties of supplemental triangles were proved geometrically in Art. 27, and by means of these properties the formulæ in Art. 47 were obtained; but these formulæ may be deduced analytically from those in Art. 39, and thus the whole subject may be made to depend upon the formulæ of Art. 39.

For from Art. 39 we obtain expressions for  $\cos A$ ,  $\cos B$ ,  $\cos C$ ; and from these we find

$$\begin{aligned} & \cos A + \cos B \cos C \\ &= \frac{(\cos a - \cos b \cos c) \sin^2 a + (\cos b - \cos a \cos c)(\cos c - \cos a \cos b)}{\sin^2 a \sin b \sin c} \end{aligned}$$

In the numerator of this fraction write  $1 - \cos^2 a$  for  $\sin^2 a$ ; thus the numerator will be found to reduce to

$$\cos a (1 - \cos^2 a - \cos^2 b - \cos^2 c + 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c)$$

and this is equal to  $\cos a \sin B \sin C \sin^2 a \sin b \sin c$ , (Art. 41); therefore  $\cos A + \cos B \cos C = \cos a \sin B \sin C$ .

Similarly the other two corresponding formulæ may be proved.

Thus the formulæ in Art. 47 are established; and therefore, without assuming the existence and properties of the Polar Triangle, we deduce the following theorem:—*If the sides and angles of a spherical triangle be changed respectively into the supplements of the corresponding angles and sides the fundamental formulæ of Art. 39 hold good, and therefore also all results deducible from them.*

56. The formulæ in the present chapter may be applied to establish analytically various propositions respecting spherical triangles which either have been proved geometrically in the preceding chapter, or may be so proved. Thus, for example, the second of Napier's analogies is

$$\tan \frac{1}{2}(A - B) = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}(a - b)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}(a + b)} \cot \frac{C}{2};$$



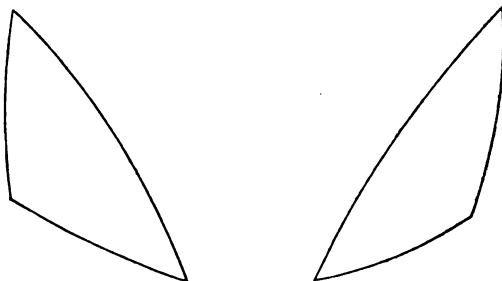
## 28 RELATIONS BETWEEN THE TRIGONOMETRICAL FUNCTIONS

this shews that  $\frac{1}{2}(A - B)$  is positive, negative, or zero, according as  $\frac{1}{2}(a - b)$  is positive, negative, or zero; thus we obtain all the results included in Arts. 33—36.

57. *If two triangles have two sides of the one equal to two sides of the other, each to each, and likewise the included angles equal, then their other angles will be equal, each to each, and likewise their bases will be equal.*

We may shew that the bases are equal by applying the first formula in Art. 39 to each triangle, supposing  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $A$  the same in the two triangles; then the remaining two formulæ of Art. 39 will shew that  $B$  and  $C$  are the same in the two triangles.

It should be observed that the two triangles in this case are *not* necessarily such that one may be made to *coincide with the other by superposition*. The sides of one may be equal to those of the other, each to each, but in a reverse order, as in the following figures.



Two triangles which are equal in this manner are said to be *symmetrically equal*; when they are equal so as to admit of superposition they are said to be *absolutely equal*.

58. *If two spherical triangles have two sides of the one equal to two sides of the other, each to each, but the angle which is contained by the two sides of the one greater than the angle which is contained by the two sides which are equal to them of the other, the base of that*

which has the greater angle will be greater than the base of the other; and conversely.

Let  $b$  and  $c$  denote the sides which are equal in the two triangles; let  $a$  be the base and  $A$  the opposite angle of one triangle, and  $a'$  and  $A'$  similar quantities for the other. Then

$$\cos a = \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A,$$

$$\cos a' = \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A';$$

therefore  $\cos a - \cos a' = \sin b \sin c (\cos A - \cos A')$ ;

that is,

$$\sin \frac{1}{2}(a + a') \sin \frac{1}{2}(a - a') = \sin b \sin c \sin \frac{1}{2}(A + A') \sin \frac{1}{2}(A - A');$$

this shews that  $\frac{1}{2}(a - a')$  and  $\frac{1}{2}(A - A')$  are of the same sign.

59. *If on a sphere any point be taken within a circle which is not its pole, of all the arcs which can be drawn from that point to the circumference, the greatest is that in which the pole is, and the other part of that produced is the least; and of any others, that which is nearer to the greatest is always greater than one more remote; and from the same point to the circumference there can be drawn only two arcs which are equal to each other, and these make equal angles with the shortest arc on opposite sides of it.*

This follows readily from the preceding three articles.

60. We will give another proof of the fundamental formulæ in Art. 39, which is very simple, requiring only a knowledge of the elements of Co-ordinate Geometry.

Suppose  $ABC$  any spherical triangle,  $O$  the centre of the sphere; take  $O$  as the origin of co-ordinates, and let the axis of  $z$  pass through  $C$ . Let  $x_1, y_1, z_1$  be the co-ordinates of  $A$ , and  $x_2, y_2, z_2$  those of  $B$ ,  $r$  the radius of the sphere. Then the square of the straight line  $AB$  is equal to

$$(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2,$$

and also to  $r^2 + r^2 - 2r^2 \cos AOB$ ;

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and  $x_1^2 + y_1^2 + z_1^2 = r^2$ ,  $x_2^2 + y_2^2 + z_2^2 = r^2$ ; thus

$$x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2 + z_1 z_2 = r^2 \cos AOB.$$

Now make the usual substitutions in passing from rectangular to polar co-ordinates, namely,

$$z_1 = r \cos \theta_1, \quad x_1 = r \sin \theta_1 \cos \phi_1, \quad y_1 = r \sin \theta_1 \sin \phi_1,$$

$$z_2 = r \cos \theta_2, \quad x_2 = r \sin \theta_2 \cos \phi_2, \quad y_2 = r \sin \theta_2 \sin \phi_2;$$

thus we obtain

$$\cos \theta_2 \cos \theta_1 + \sin \theta_2 \sin \theta_1 \cos (\phi_1 - \phi_2) = \cos AOB,$$

that is, in the ordinary notation of Spherical Trigonometry,

$$\cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b \cos C = \cos c.$$

This method has the advantage of giving a *perfectly general proof*, as all the equations used are universally true.

#### EXAMPLES.

1. If  $A = a$ , shew that  $B$  and  $b$  are equal or supplemental, as also  $C$  and  $c$ .

2. If one angle of a triangle be equal to the sum of the other two, the greatest side is double of the distance of its middle point from the opposite angle.

3. When does the polar triangle coincide with the primitive triangle?

4. If  $D$  be the middle point of  $AB$ , shew that

$$\cos AC + \cos BC = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2} AB \cos CD.$$

5. If two angles of a spherical triangle be respectively equal to the sides opposite to them, prove that the remaining side is the supplement of the remaining angle; or else that the triangle has two quadrants and two right angles, and then the remaining side is equal to the remaining angle.

6. In an equilateral triangle, prove that  $2 \cos \frac{a}{2} \sin \frac{A}{2} = 1$ .

7. In an equilateral triangle, prove that  $\tan^2 \frac{a}{2} = 1 - 2 \cos A$ ; hence deduce the limits between which the sides and angles of an equilateral triangle are restricted.

8. In an equilateral triangle, prove that  $\sec A = 1 + \sec a$ .

9. If the three sides of a spherical triangle be halved and a new triangle formed, the angle  $\theta$  between the new sides  $\frac{b}{2}$  and  $\frac{c}{2}$  is given by  $\cos \theta = \cos A + \frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{b}{2} \tan \frac{c}{2} \sin^2 \theta$ .

10.  $AB, CD$  are quadrants on the surface of a sphere intersecting in  $E$ , the extremities being joined by great circles; prove that

$$\cos AEC = \cos AC \cos BD - \cos BC \cos AD.$$

11. If  $b + c = \pi$ , prove that  $\sin 2B + \sin 2C = 0$ .

12. If  $DE$  be an arc of a great circle bisecting the sides  $AB, AC$  of a spherical triangle in  $D$  and  $E$ ,  $P$  a pole of  $DE$ , and  $PB, PD, PE, PC$  be joined by arcs of great circles, shew that the angle  $BPC =$  twice the angle  $DPE$ .

13. Shew that

$$\sin b \sin c + \cos b \cos c \cos A = \sin B \sin C - \cos B \cos C \cos a.$$

14. If  $D$  be any point in the side  $BC$  of a triangle, shew that

$$\cos AD \sin BC = \cos AB \sin DC + \cos AC \sin BD.$$

15. Prove that if  $\theta, \phi, \psi$  be the lengths of arcs of great circles drawn from  $A, B, C$  perpendicular to the opposite sides,

$$\begin{aligned} \sin a \sin \theta &= \sin b \sin \phi = \sin c \sin \psi \\ &= \sqrt{(1 - \cos^2 a - \cos^2 b - \cos^2 c + 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c)}. \end{aligned}$$

16. In a spherical triangle, if  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $\psi$  be the arcs bisecting the angles  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$  respectively and terminated by the opposite sides, shew that

$$\cot \theta \cos \frac{A}{2} + \cot \phi \cos \frac{B}{2} + \cot \psi \cos \frac{C}{2} = \cot a + \cot b + \cot c.$$

17. Two ports are in the same parallel of latitude, their common latitude being  $l$  and their difference of longitude  $2\lambda$ ; shew that the saving of distance in sailing from one to the other on the great circle, instead of sailing due East or West, is

$$2r \{ \lambda \cos l - \sin^{-1} (\sin \lambda \cos l) \},$$

$\lambda$  being expressed in circular measure, and  $r$  being the radius of the Earth.

18. If a ship be proceeding uniformly along a great circle and the observed latitudes be  $l_1$ ,  $l_2$ ,  $l_3$ , at equal intervals of time, in each of which the distance traversed is  $s$ , shew that

$$s = r \cos^{-1} \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}(l_1 + l_3) \cos \frac{1}{2}(l_1 - l_3)}{\sin l_2},$$

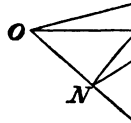
$r$  denoting the Earth's radius; and shew that the change of longitude may also be found in terms of the three latitudes.

## V. SOLUTION OF RIGHT-ANGLED TRIANGLES.

61. In every spherical triangle there are six elements, namely, the three sides and the three angles, besides the radius of the sphere, which is supposed constant. The solution of spherical triangles is the process by which, when the values of a sufficient number of the six elements are given, we calculate the values of the remaining elements. It will appear, as we proceed, that when the values of three of the elements are given, those of the remaining three can generally be found. We begin with the right-angled triangle; here two elements, in addition to the right angle, will be supposed known.

SOLUTION OF RIC

62. The formulæ requis  
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may also be obtained very e  
we will now shew.



Let  $ABC$  be a spherical  
let  $O$  be the centre of the sph  
 $PM$  perpendicular to  $OC$ , and  
 $OB$ , and join  $PN$ . Then  $PM$   
plane  $AOC$  is perpendicular to

$$PN^2 = PM^2 + MN^2 = OP^2 -$$

therefore  $PNO$  is a right angl

$$\frac{ON}{OP} = \frac{ON}{OM} \cdot \frac{OM}{OP}, \text{ that}$$

$$\frac{PM}{OP} = \frac{PM}{PN} \cdot \frac{PN}{OP}, \text{ that}$$

Similarly

$$\frac{MN}{ON} = \frac{MN}{PN} \cdot \frac{PN}{ON}, \text{ that}$$

Similarly

$$\frac{PM}{OM} = \frac{PM}{MN} \cdot \frac{MN}{OM}, \text{ that i}$$

Similarly

T.S.T.

Multiply together the two formulæ (4); thus,

$$\tan A \tan B = \frac{\tan a \tan b}{\sin a \sin b} = \frac{1}{\cos a \cos b} = \frac{1}{\cos c} \text{ by (1);}$$

therefore  $\cos c = \cot A \cot B \dots\dots\dots (5).$

Multiply crosswise the second formula in (2) and the first in (3); thus  $\sin a \cos B \tan c = \tan a \sin A \sin c$ ;

therefore  $\cos B = \frac{\sin A \cos c}{\cos a} = \sin A \cos b$  by (1).

thus  $\cos B = \sin A \cos b$   
Similarly  $\cos A = \sin B \cos a$  }  $\dots\dots\dots (6).$

These six formulæ comprise ten equations; and thus we can solve every case of right-angled triangles. For every one of these ten equations is a distinct combination involving three out of the five quantities  $a, b, c, A, B$ ; and out of five quantities only ten combinations of three can be formed. Thus any two of the five quantities being given and a third required, some one of the preceding ten equations will serve to determine that third quantity.

63. As we have stated, the above six formulæ may be obtained from those given in the preceding chapter by supposing  $C$  a right angle. Thus (1) follows from Art. 39, (2) from Art. 41, (3) from the fourth and fifth equations of Art. 44, (4) from the first and second equations of Art. 44, (5) from the third equation of Art. 47, (6) from the first and second equations of Art. 47.

Since the six formulæ may be obtained from those given in the preceding chapter which have been proved to be universally true, we do not stop to shew that the demonstration of Art. 62 may be applied to every case which can occur; the student may for exercise investigate the modifications which will be necessary when we suppose one or more of the quantities  $a, b, c, A, B$  equal to a right angle or greater than a right angle.

64. Certain properties of right-angled triangles are deducible from the formulæ of Art. 62.

From (1) it follows that  $\cos c$  has the same sign as the product  $\cos a \cos b$ ; hence either all the cosines are positive, or else only one is positive. Therefore in a right-angled triangle either all the three sides are less than quadrants, or else one side is less than a quadrant and the other two sides are greater than quadrants.

From (4) it follows that  $\tan a$  has the same sign as  $\tan A$ . Therefore  $A$  and  $a$  are either both greater than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , or both less than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ ; this is expressed by saying that  $A$  and  $a$  are of the same affection. Similarly  $B$  and  $b$  are of the same affection.

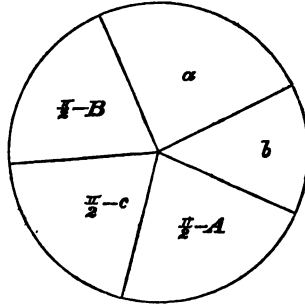
65. The formulæ of Art. 62 are comprised in the following enunciations, which the student will find it useful to remember; the results are distinguished by the same numbers as have been already applied to them in Art. 62; the side opposite the right angle is called the *hypotenuse*:

- Cos hyp = product of cosines of sides .....(1),
- Cos hyp = product of cotangents of angles .....(5),
- Sine side = sine of opposite angle  $\times$  sine hyp .....(2),
- Tan side = tan hyp  $\times$  cos included angle .....(3),
- Tan side = tan opposite angle  $\times$  sine of other side.....(4),
- Cos angle = cos opposite side  $\times$  sine of other angle.....(6).

66. *Napier's Rules.* The formulæ of Art. 62 are comprised in two rules, which are called, from their inventor, *Napier's Rules of Circular Parts*. Napier was also the inventor of Logarithms, and the Rules of Circular Parts were first published by him in a work entitled *Mirifici Logarithmorum Canonis Descriptio*..... Edinburgh, 1614. These rules we will now explain.



The right angle is left out of consideration; the two sides which include the right angle, the complement of the hypotenuse, and the complements of the other angles are called the *circular*



parts of the triangle. Thus there are *five* circular parts, namely,  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $\frac{\pi}{2} - A$ ,  $\frac{\pi}{2} - c$ ,  $\frac{\pi}{2} - B$ ; and these are supposed to be ranged round a circle in the order in which they naturally occur with respect to the triangle.

Any one of the five parts may be selected and called the *middle part*, then the two parts next to it are called *adjacent parts*, and the remaining two parts are called *opposite parts*. For example, if  $\frac{\pi}{2} - B$  is selected as the middle part, then the adjacent parts are  $a$  and  $\frac{\pi}{2} - c$ , and the opposite parts are  $b$  and  $\frac{\pi}{2} - A$ .

Then Napier's Rules are the following:

sine of the middle part = product of tangents of adjacent parts,  
sine of the middle part = product of cosines of opposite parts.

67. Napier's Rules may be proved by shewing that they agree with the results already established. The following table shews the required agreement: in the first column are given the *middle parts*, in the second column the results of Napier's Rules, and in the third column the same results expressed as in Art. 62, with the number for reference used in that article.

SOLUTION OF R1

$$\frac{\pi}{2} - c \quad \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - c \right) = \tan \left( \frac{\pi}{2} -$$

$$\sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - c \right) = \cos a \cos$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} - B \quad \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - B \right) = \tan a \tan$$

$$\sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - B \right) = \cos b \cos$$

$$a \quad \sin a = \tan b \tan$$

$$\sin a = \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{2} -$$

$$b \quad \sin b = \tan \left( \frac{\pi}{2} -$$

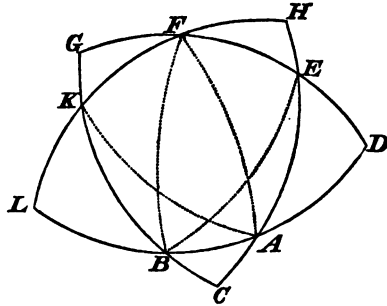
$$\sin b = \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{2} -$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} - A \quad \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - A \right) = \tan b \tan$$

$$\sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - A \right) = \cos a \cos$$

The last four cases need :  
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 the seventh and eighth are  
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68. It has been some  
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 proved; this statement, hov  
 method Napier himself indi  
*Mirifici Logarithmorum Can*  
 will now briefly explain :



Let  $ABC$  be a spherical triangle right-angled at  $C$ ; with as pole describe a great circle  $DEFG$ , and with  $A$  as pole describe a great circle  $HFKL$ , and produce the sides of the original triangle  $ABC$  to meet these great circles. Then since  $B$  is a pole of  $DEF$  the angles at  $D$  and  $G$  are right angles, and since  $A$  is a pole of  $HFKL$  the angles at  $H$  and  $L$  are right angles. Hence the five triangles  $BAC$ ,  $AED$ ,  $EFH$ ,  $FKG$ ,  $KBL$  are all *right-angled*; and moreover it will be found on examination that, although the elements of these triangles are different, yet *their circular parts are the same*. We will consider, for example, the triangle  $AED$ ; the angle  $EAD$  is equal to the angle  $BAC$ ; the side  $AD$  is the complement of  $AB$ ; as the angles at  $C$  and  $G$  are right angles  $E$  is pole of  $GC$  (Art. 13), therefore  $EA$  is the complement of  $AC$ ;  $B$  is a pole of  $DE$  the angle  $BED$  is a right angle, therefore the angle  $AED$  is the complement of the angle  $BEC$ , that is, the angle  $AED$  is the complement of the side  $BC$  (Art. 12); and similarly the side  $DE$  is equal to the angle  $DBE$ , and is therefore the complement of the angle  $ABC$ . Hence, if we denote the elements of the triangle  $ABC$  as usual by  $a, b, c, A, B$ , we have in the triangle  $AED$  the hypotenuse equal to  $\frac{\pi}{2} - b$ , the angles equal  $A$  and  $\frac{\pi}{2} - a$ , and the sides respectively opposite these angles equal to  $\frac{\pi}{2} - B$  and  $\frac{\pi}{2} - c$ . The *circular parts* of  $AED$  are therefore the

same as those of  $ABC$ . Similarly the remaining three of the five right-angled triangles may be shewn to have the same circular parts as the triangle  $ABC$  has.

Now take *two* of the theorems in Art. 65, for example (1) and (3); then the truth of the *ten* cases comprised in Napier's Rules will be found to follow from applying the two theorems in succession to the five triangles formed in the preceding figure. Thus this method of considering Napier's Rules regards each Rule, not as the statement of dissimilar properties of one triangle, but as the statement of similar properties of five allied triangles.

69. In Napier's work a figure is given of which that in the preceding Article is a copy, except that different letters are used; Napier briefly intimates that the truth of the Rules can be easily seen by means of this figure, as well as by the method of induction from consideration of all the cases which can occur. The late T. S. Davies, in his edition of Dr Hutton's *Course of Mathematics*, drew attention to Napier's own views and expanded the demonstration by a systematic examination of the figure of the preceding article. It is however easy to evade the necessity of examining the whole figure; all that is wanted is to observe the connexion between the triangle  $AED$  and the triangle  $BAC$ . For let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5$  represent the elements of the triangle  $BAC$  taken in order, beginning with the hypotenuse and omitting the right angle; then the elements of the triangle  $AED$  taken in order, beginning with the hypotenuse and omitting the right angle, are  $\frac{\pi}{2} - a_2, \frac{\pi}{2} - a_4, \frac{\pi}{2} - a_5, \frac{\pi}{2} - a_1$ , and  $a_3$ . If, therefore, to characterise the former we introduce a new set of quantities  $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, p_5$ , such that  $a_1 + p_1 = a_2 + p_2 = a_3 + p_3 = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , and that  $p_3 = a_3$  and  $p_4 = a_4$ , then the original triangle being characterised by  $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, p_5$ , the second triangle will be characterised by  $p_2, p_4, p_3, p_1, p_5$ . As the second triangle can give rise to a third in like manner, and so on, we see that every right-angled triangle is one of a system of five such triangles which are all characterised by the quantities

$p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, p_5$ , always taken in order, each quantity in its turn standing first.

70. Opinions have differed with respect to the *utility* of Napier's Rules in practice. Thus Woodhouse says, "In the whole compass of mathematical science there cannot be found, perhaps, rules which more completely attain that which is the proper object of rules, namely, facility and brevity of computation." (*Trigonometry*, chap. x.) On the other hand may be set the following sentence from Airy's *Trigonometry* (*Encyclopædia Metropolitana*): "In the opinion of Delambre (and no one was better qualified by experience to give an opinion) these theorems are best recollected by the practical calculator in their unconnected form." Professor De Morgan strongly objects to Napier's Rules, and says (*Spherical Trigonometry*, Art. 17): "There are certain mnemonical formulæ called *Napier's Rules of Circular Parts*, which are generally explained. We do not give them, because we are convinced that they only create confusion instead of assisting the memory."

71. We shall now proceed to apply the formulæ of Art. 62 to the solution of right-angled triangles. We shall assume that the given quantities are subject to the limitations of Arts. 22 and 23, that is, a given side must be less than the semicircumference of a great circle, and a given angle less than two right angles. There will be six cases to consider.

72. *Having given the hypotenuse  $c$  and an angle  $A$ .*

Here we have from (3), (5) and (2) of Art. 62,

$$\tan b = \tan c \cos A, \cot B = \cos c \tan A, \sin a = \sin c \sin A.$$

Thus  $b$  and  $B$  are determined immediately without ambiguity; and as  $a$  must be of the same affection as  $A$  (Art. 64),  $a$  also is determined without ambiguity.

It is obvious from the formulæ of solution, that in this case the triangle is always possible.

If  $c$  and  $A$  are both right angles,  $a$  is a right angle, and  $b$  and  $B$  are indeterminate.

SOLUTION OF RIGHT

73. *Having given a side b*

Here we have from (3), (4)

$$\tan c = \frac{\tan b}{\cos A}, \quad \tan a = \tan$$

Here  $c, a, B$  are determined. The angle  $c$  is always possible.

74. *Having given the two*

Here we have from (1) and

$$\cos c = \cos a \cos b, \quad \cot A$$

Here  $c, A, B$  are determined. The angle  $c$  is always possible.

75. *Having given the hypotenuse*

Here we have from (1), (3)

$$\cos b = \frac{\cos c}{\cos a}, \quad \cos B$$

Here  $b, B, A$  are determined. The angle  $b$  is always possible. It is to be of the same affection as  $a$ . It is to be noted that there are limitations of the data in a right triangle; in fact,  $c$  must lie between  $a$  and  $b$ ; the values found for  $\cos b, \cos B,$  etc., must be greater than unity.

If  $c$  and  $a$  are right angles, the angle  $b$  is indeterminate.

76. *Having given the two*

Here we have from (5) and

$$\cos c = \cot A \cot B, \quad \cos$$

Here  $c, a, b$  are determined. The angle  $c$  is always possible. It is to be of the same affection as  $a$ . It is to be noted that there are limitations of the data in order

suppose  $A$  less than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , then  $B$  must lie between  $\frac{\pi}{2} - A$  and  $\frac{\pi}{2} + A$ ; next suppose  $A$  greater than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , then  $B$  must lie between  $\frac{\pi}{2} - (\pi - A)$  and  $\frac{\pi}{2} + (\pi - A)$ , that is, between  $A - \frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $\frac{3\pi}{2} - A$ .

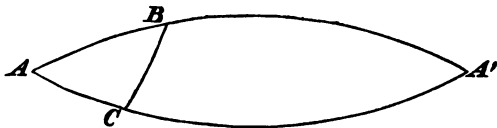
77. *Having given a side  $a$  and the opposite angle  $A$ .*

Here we have from (2), (4) and (6) of Art. 62,

$$\sin c = \frac{\sin a}{\sin A}, \quad \sin b = \tan a \cot A, \quad \sin B = \frac{\cos A}{\cos a}.$$

Here there is an ambiguity, as the parts are determined from their sines. If  $\sin a$  be less than  $\sin A$ , there are two values admissible for  $c$ ; corresponding to each of these there will be *in general* only one admissible value of  $b$ , since we must have  $\cos c = \cos a \cos b$ , and only one admissible value of  $B$ , since we must have  $\cos c = \cot A \cot B$ . Thus if one triangle exists with the given parts, there will be *in general* two, and only two, triangles with the given parts. We say *in general* in the preceding sentences, because if  $a = A$  there will be only *one* triangle, unless  $a$  and  $A$  are each right angles, and then  $b$  and  $B$  become indeterminate.

It is easy to see from a figure that the ambiguity must occur in general.



For, suppose  $BAC$  to be a triangle which satisfies the given conditions; produce  $AB$  and  $AC$  to meet again in  $A'$ ; then the triangle  $A'BC$  also satisfies the given conditions, for it has a right angle at  $C$ ,  $BC$  the given side, and  $A' = A$  the given angle.

If  $\alpha = A$ , then the formulæ of solution shew that  $c$ ,  $b$ , and  $B$  are right angles; in this case  $A$  is the pole of  $BC$ , and the triangle  $A'BC$  is symmetrically equal to the triangle  $ABC$  (Art. 57).

If  $a$  and  $A$  are both right angles,  $B$  is the pole of  $AC$ ;  $B$  and  $b$  are then equal, but may have any value whatever.

There are limitations of the data in order to insure a possible triangle.  $A$  and  $a$  must have the same affection by Art. 64; hence the formulæ of solution shew that  $a$  must be less than  $A$  if both are acute, and greater than  $A$  if both are obtuse.

EXAMPLES.

If  $ABC$  be a triangle in which the angle  $C$  is a right angle, prove the following relations contained in Examples 1 to 5.

$$1. \quad \text{Sin}^2 \frac{c}{2} = \text{sin}^2 \frac{a}{2} \cos^2 \frac{b}{2} + \cos^2 \frac{a}{2} \text{sin}^2 \frac{b}{2}.$$

$$2. \quad \text{Tan} \frac{1}{2}(c+a) \tan \frac{1}{2}(c-a) = \text{tan}^2 \frac{b}{2}.$$

$$3. \quad \text{Sin}(c-b) = \text{tan}^2 \frac{A}{2} \text{sin}(c+b).$$

$$4. \quad \text{Sin} a \tan \frac{1}{2} A - \text{sin} b \tan \frac{1}{2} B = \text{sin}(a-b).$$

$$5. \quad \begin{aligned} \text{Sin}(c-a) &= \text{sin} b \cos a \tan \frac{1}{2} B, \\ \text{Sin}(c-a) &= \tan b \cos c \tan \frac{1}{2} B. \end{aligned}$$

6. If  $ABC$  be a spherical triangle, right-angled at  $C$ , and  $\cos A = \cos^2 a$ , shew that if  $A$  be not a right angle  $b+c = \frac{1}{2}\pi$  or  $\frac{3}{2}\pi$ , according as  $b$  and  $c$  are both less or both greater than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

7. If  $\alpha, \beta$  be the arcs drawn from the right angle respectively perpendicular to and bisecting the hypotenuse  $c$ , shew that

$$\text{sin} \frac{c}{2} \cdot \sqrt{1 + \text{sin}^2 a} = \text{sin} \beta.$$



8. In a triangle, if  $C$  be a right angle and  $D$  the middle point of  $AB$ , shew that

$$4 \cos^2 \frac{C}{2} \sin^2 CD = \sin^2 a + \sin^2 b.$$

9. In a right-angled triangle, if  $\delta$  be the length of the arc drawn from  $C$  at right angles to the hypotenuse  $AB$ , shew that

$$\cot \delta = \sqrt{(\cot^2 a + \cot^2 b)}.$$

10.  $OAA_1$  is a spherical triangle right-angled at  $A_1$  and acute-angled at  $A$ ; the arc  $A_1 A_2$  of a great circle is drawn perpendicular to  $OA$ ,  $A_2 A_3$  is drawn perpendicular to  $OA_1$ , and so on; prove that  $A_n A_{n+1}$  vanishes when  $n$  becomes infinite; and find the value of  $\cos AA_1, \cos A_1 A_2, \cos A_2 A_3, \dots$  to infinity.

11.  $ABC$  is a right-angled spherical triangle,  $A$  not being the right angle; prove that if  $A = a$ , then  $c$  and  $b$  are quadrants.

12. If  $\delta$  be the length of the arc drawn from  $C$  at right angles to  $AB$  in any triangle, shew that

$$\cos \delta = \operatorname{cosec} c (\cos^2 a + \cos^2 b - 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

13.  $ABC$  is a great circle of a sphere;  $AA', BB', CC'$  are arcs of great circles drawn perpendicular to  $ABC$  and reckoned positive when they lie on the same side of it; prove that the condition of  $A', B', C'$  lying in a great circle is

$$\tan AA' \sin BC + \tan BB' \sin CA + \tan CC' \sin AB = 0.$$

14. Perpendiculars are drawn from the angles  $A, B, C$  of any triangle meeting the opposite sides in  $D, E, F$  respectively; shew that

$$\tan BD \tan CE \tan AF = \tan DC \tan EA \tan FB.$$

15.  $Ox, Oy$  are two great circles of a sphere at right angles to each other,  $P$  any point in  $AB$  another great circle.  $OC = p$  is the arc perpendicular to  $AB$  from  $O$ , making the angle  $COx = a$  with

*x.*  $PM, PN$  are arcs perpendicular to  $Ox, Oy$  respectively; shew that if  $OM = x$  and  $ON = y$ ,

$$\cos a \tan x + \sin a \tan y = \tan p.$$

16. The position of a point on a sphere, with reference to two great circles at right angles to each other as axes, is determined by the portions  $\theta, \phi$  of these circles cut off by great circles through the point, and through two points on the axes, each  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  from their point of intersection; shew that if the three points  $(\theta, \phi), (\theta', \phi'), (\theta'', \phi'')$  lie on the same great circle

$$\begin{aligned} \tan \phi (\tan \theta' - \tan \theta'') + \tan \phi' (\tan \theta'' - \tan \theta) \\ + \tan \phi'' (\tan \theta - \tan \theta') = 0. \end{aligned}$$

17. If a point on a sphere be referred to two great circles at right angles to each other as axes, by means of the portions of these axes cut off by great circles drawn through the point and two points on the axes each  $90^\circ$  from their intersection, shew that the equation to a great circle is

$$\tan \theta \cot \alpha + \tan \phi \cot \beta = 1.$$

18. In a triangle, if  $A = \frac{\pi}{5}$ ,  $B = \frac{\pi}{3}$ , and  $C = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , shew that

$$b + c = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

## VI. SOLUTION OF OBLIQUE-ANGLED TRIANGLES.

78. The solution of oblique-angled triangles may be made in some cases to depend immediately upon the solution of right-angled triangles; we will indicate these cases before considering the subject generally.

(1) Suppose a triangle to have one of its given sides equal to a *quadrant*. In this case the polar triangle has its corresponding angle a right angle; the polar triangle can therefore be solved by the rules of the preceding chapter, and thus the elements of the primitive triangle become known.

(2) Suppose among the given elements of a triangle there are two *equal sides* or two *equal angles*. By drawing an arc from the vertex to the middle point of the base, the triangle is divided into two equal *right-angled* triangles; by the solution of one of these right-angled triangles the required elements can be found.

(3) Suppose among the given elements of a triangle there are two sides, one of which is the supplement of the other, or two angles, one of which is the supplement of the other. Suppose, for example, that  $b + c = \pi$ , or else that  $B + C = \pi$ ; then produce  $BA$  and  $BC$  to meet in  $B'$  (see the first figure to Art. 38); then the triangle  $B'AC$  has two equal sides given, or else two equal angles given; and by the preceding case the solution of it can be made to depend upon that of a right-angled triangle.

79. We now proceed to the solution of oblique-angled triangles in general. There will be six cases to consider.

80. *Having given the three sides.*

Here we have  $\cos A = \frac{\cos a - \cos b \cos c}{\sin b \sin c}$ , and similar formulæ for  $\cos B$  and  $\cos C$ . Or if we wish to use formulæ suited to loga-

rithms, we may take the formula for the sine, cosine, or tangent of half an angle given in Art. 45. In selecting a formula, attention should be paid to the remarks in *Plane Trigonometry*, Chap. XII. towards the end.

81. *Having given the three angles.*

Here we have  $\cos a = \frac{\cos A + \cos B \cos C}{\sin B \sin C}$ , and similar formulæ for  $\cos b$  and  $\cos c$ . Or if we wish to use formulæ suited to logarithms, we may take the formula for the sine, cosine, or tangent of half a side given in Art. 49.

There is no ambiguity in the two preceding cases; the triangles however may be impossible with the given elements.

82. *Having given two sides and the included angle (a, C, b).*

By Napier's analogies

$$\tan \frac{1}{2}(A + B) = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(a - b)}{\cos \frac{1}{2}(a + b)} \cot \frac{1}{2}C,$$

$$\tan \frac{1}{2}(A - B) = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}(a - b)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}(a + b)} \cot \frac{1}{2}C;$$

these determine  $\frac{1}{2}(A + B)$  and  $\frac{1}{2}(A - B)$ , and thence  $A$  and  $B$ .

Then  $c$  may be found from the formula  $\sin c = \frac{\sin a \sin C}{\sin A}$ ; in this case, since  $c$  is found from its sine, it may be uncertain which of two values is to be given to it; the point may be sometimes settled by observing that the greater side of a triangle is opposite to the greater angle. Or we may determine  $c$  from equation (1) of Art. 54, which is free from ambiguity.

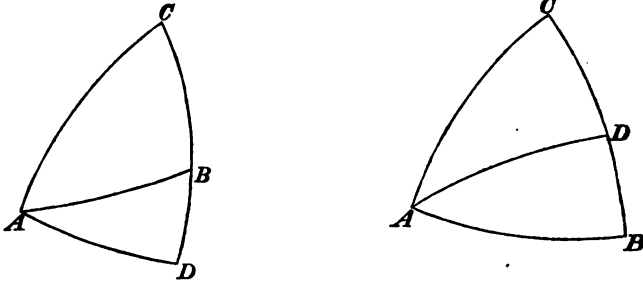
Or we may determine  $c$ , without previously determining  $A$  and  $B$ , from the formula  $\cos c = \cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b \cos C$ ; this is free from ambiguity. This formula may be adapted to logarithms thus;

$$\cos c = \cos b (\cos a + \sin a \tan b \cos C);$$

assume  $\tan \theta = \tan b \cos C$ ; then

$$\cos c = \cos b (\cos a + \sin a \tan \theta) = \frac{\cos b \cos (a - \theta)}{\cos \theta};$$

this is adapted to logarithms.



Or we may treat this case conveniently by resolving the triangle into the sum or difference of two right-angled triangles. From  $A$  draw the arc  $AD$  perpendicular to  $CB$  or  $CB$  produced; then, by Art. 62,  $\tan CD = \tan b \cos C$ , and this determines  $CD$ , and then  $DB$  is known. Again, by Art. 62,

$$\cos c = \cos AD \cos DB = \cos DB \frac{\cos b}{\cos CD};$$

this finds  $c$ . It is obvious that  $CD$  is what was denoted by  $\theta$  in the former part of the Article.

By Art. 62,

$$\tan AD = \tan C \sin CD, \text{ and } \tan AD = \tan ABD \sin DB;$$

$$\text{thus } \tan ABD \sin DB = \tan C \sin \theta,$$

where  $DB = a - \theta$  or  $\theta - a$ , according as  $D$  is on  $CB$  or  $CB$  produced, and  $ABD$  is either  $B$  or the supplement of  $B$ ; this formula enables us to find  $B$  independently of  $A$ .

Thus, in the present case, there is no real ambiguity, and the triangle is always possible.

83. *Having given two angles and the included side (A, c, B).*

By Napier's analogies,

$$\tan \frac{1}{2}(a+b) = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B)} \tan \frac{1}{2}c,$$

$$\tan \frac{1}{2}(a-b) = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}(A+B)} \tan \frac{1}{2}c;$$

these determine  $\frac{1}{2}(a+b)$  and  $\frac{1}{2}(a-b)$ , and thence  $a$  and  $b$ .

Then  $C$  may be found from the formula  $\sin C = \frac{\sin A \sin c}{\sin a}$ ; in this case, since  $C$  is found from its sine, it may be uncertain which of two values is to be given to it; the point may be sometimes settled by observing that the greater angle of a triangle is opposite to the greater side. Or we may determine  $C$  from equation (3) of Art. 54, which is free from ambiguity.

Or we may determine  $C$  without previously determining  $a$  and  $b$  from the formula  $\cos C = -\cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B \cos c$ . This formula may be adapted to logarithms, thus;

$$\cos C = \cos B (-\cos A + \sin A \tan B \cos c);$$

assume  $\cot \phi = \tan B \cos c$ ; then

$$\cos C = \cos B (-\cos A + \cot \phi \sin A) = \frac{\cos B \sin(A-\phi)}{\sin \phi};$$

this is adapted to logarithms.

Or we may treat this case conveniently by resolving the triangle into the sum or difference of two right-angled triangles. From  $A$  draw the arc  $AD$  perpendicular to  $CB$  (see the right-hand figure of Art. 82); then, by Art. 62,  $\cos c = \cot B \cot DAB$ , and this determines  $DAB$ , and then  $CAD$  is known. Again, by Art. 62,

$$\cos AD \sin CAD = \cos C \text{ and } \cos AD \sin BAD = \cos B;$$

therefore  $\frac{\cos C}{\sin CAD} = \frac{\cos B}{\sin BAD}$ ; this finds  $C$ .

It is obvious that  $DAB$  is what was denoted by  $\phi$  in the former part of the Article.

By Art. 62,

$$\tan AD = \tan AC \cos CAD, \text{ and } \tan AD = \tan AB \cos BAD;$$

$$\text{thus } \tan b \cos CAD = \tan c \cos \phi,$$

where  $CAD = A - \phi$ ; this formula enables us to find  $b$  independently of  $a$ .

Similarly we may proceed when the perpendicular  $AD$  falls on  $CB$  produced; (see the left-hand figure of Art. 82).

Thus, in the present case, there is no real ambiguity; moreover the triangle is always possible.

84. *Having given two sides and the angle opposite one of them (a, b, A).*

The angle  $B$  may be found from the formula

$$\sin B = \frac{\sin b}{\sin a} \sin A,$$

and then  $C$  and  $c$  from Napier's analogies,

$$\tan \frac{1}{2} C = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(a-b)}{\cos \frac{1}{2}(a+b)} \cot \frac{1}{2}(A+B),$$

$$\tan \frac{1}{2} c = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)} \tan \frac{1}{2}(a+b).$$

In this case, since  $B$  is found from its sine, there will sometimes be two solutions; and sometimes there will be no solution at all, namely, when the value found for  $\sin B$  is greater than unity. We will presently return to this point. (See Art. 86.)

We may also determine  $C$  and  $c$  independently of  $B$  by formulæ adapted to logarithms. For, by Art. 44,

$$\cot a \sin b = \cos b \cos C + \sin C \cot A = \cos b \left( \cos C + \frac{\cot A}{\cos b} \sin C \right);$$

assume  $\tan \phi = \frac{\cot A}{\cos b}$ ; thus

$$\cot a \sin b = \cos b (\cos C + \tan \phi \sin C) = \frac{\cos b \cos(C-\phi)}{\cos \phi};$$

therefore  $\cos(C-\phi) = \cos \phi \cot a \tan b$ ;

### SOLUTION OF OBLIQUE

from this equation  $C - \phi$  is to be  
guity still exists; for if the last  
will be satisfied also by  $\phi - C = a$ .  
values for  $C$ , if  $\phi + a$  is less than  $\pi$

And

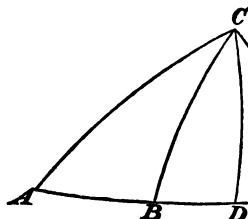
$\cos a = \cos b \cos c + \sin b \sin c \cos A$   
assume  $\tan \theta = \tan b \cos A$ ; thus

$$\cos a = \cos b (\cos c + \sin c$$

therefore  $\cos (c - \theta) =$

from this equation  $c - \theta$  is to be fo  
be an ambiguity as before.

Or we may treat this case cc  
angle into the sum or difference of



Let  $CA = b$ , and let  $CAE =$  th  
 $CD$  perpendicular to  $AE$ , and let  
shews that there may be two triar  
ments. Then, by Art. 62,  $\cos b =$   
Again, by Art. 62,

$$\tan CD = \tan AC \cos ACD,$$

$$\text{and } \tan CD = \tan CB \cos BCD,$$

therefore  $\tan AC \cos ACD = \tan CB$   
this finds  $BCD$  or  $B'CD$ .

It is obvious that  $ACD$  is what  
part of the Article.



Also, by Art. 62,  $\tan AD = \tan AC \cos A$ ; this finds  $AD$ . Then

$$\cos AC = \cos CD \cos AD, \quad \cos CB = \cos CD \cos BD,$$

$$\text{or } \cos CB' = \cos CD \cos B'D;$$

therefore 
$$\frac{\cos AC}{\cos AD} = \frac{\cos CB}{\cos BD} \text{ or } \frac{\cos CB'}{\cos B'D};$$

this finds  $BD$  or  $B'D$ .

It is obvious that  $AD$  is what was denoted by  $\theta$  in the former part of the Article.

85. *Having given two angles and the side opposite one of them (A, B, a).*

This case is analogous to that immediately preceding, and gives rise to the same ambiguities. The side  $b$  may be found from the formula  $\sin b = \frac{\sin B \sin a}{\sin A}$ , and then  $C$  and  $c$  from Napier's analogies,

$$\tan \frac{1}{2} C = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2} (a - b)}{\cos \frac{1}{2} (a + b)} \cot \frac{1}{2} (A + B),$$

$$\tan \frac{1}{2} c = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2} (A + B)}{\cos \frac{1}{2} (A - B)} \tan \frac{1}{2} (a + b).$$

We may also determine  $C$  and  $c$  independently of  $b$  by formulæ adapted to logarithms. For

$$\begin{aligned} \cos A &= -\cos B \cos C + \sin B \sin C \cos a \\ &= \cos B (-\cos C + \tan B \sin C \cos a), \end{aligned}$$

assume  $\cot \phi = \tan B \cos a$ ; thus

$$\cos A = \cos B (-\cos C + \sin C \cot \phi) = \frac{\cos B \sin (C - \phi)}{\sin \phi};$$

therefore 
$$\sin (C - \phi) = \frac{\cos A \sin \phi}{\cos B};$$

from this equation  $C - \phi$  is to be found and then  $C$ . Since  $C - \phi$  is found from its sine there may be an ambiguity. Again, by Art. 44,

SOLUTION OF OBLIQUE-AN

$$\cot A \sin B = \cot a \sin c - \cos c \cos B =$$

assume  $\cot \theta = \frac{\cot a}{\cos B}$ ; then

$$\cot A \sin B = \cos B (-\cos c + \sin c$$

therefore  $\sin (c - \theta) = \cot A \sin B$

from this equation  $c - \theta$  is to be found. It may be found from its sine there may be an ambiguity. It can be shewn that these results agree with the triangle into two right-angled triangles. In  $\triangle ACB$  the arc  $CD$  be drawn perpendicular to  $AB$  will =  $\phi$ , and  $B'D = \theta$ .

86. We now return to the case which may occur in the case of Art. 85 and the angle opposite one of them. This case is tedious from its length, but presents no difficulty.

Before considering the problem in a particular case in which  $a = b$ ; then the third of Napier's analogies give

$$\cot \frac{1}{2} C = \tan A \cos a,$$

now  $\cot \frac{1}{2} C$  and  $\tan \frac{1}{2} c$  must both be of the same affection. Hence, when  $a = b$ , there is no solution at all, unless  $A$  and  $a$  are of the same affection; there will be only one solution; except when  $A = a$  right angles, and then  $\cot \frac{1}{2} C$  and  $\tan \frac{1}{2} c$  are both infinite, there is an infinite number of solutions.

We now proceed to the general case.

If  $\sin b \sin A$  be greater than  $\sin a$ , no solution satisfies the given conditions; if  $\sin b \sin A = \sin a$ , the equation  $\sin B = \frac{\sin b \sin A}{\sin a}$  which we will denote by  $\beta$  and  $\beta'$ , so that  $\beta > \beta'$ , we suppose that  $\beta$  is the one which is not greater than  $90^\circ$ .

Now, in order that these values of  $B$  may be admissible, it is necessary and sufficient that the values of  $\cot \frac{1}{2} C$  and of  $\tan \frac{1}{2} c$  should both be positive, that is,  $A - B$  and  $a - b$  must have the same sign by the second and fourth of Napier's analogies. We have therefore to compare the sign of  $A - \beta$  and the sign of  $A - \beta'$  with that of  $a - b$ . We will suppose that  $A$  is less than a right angle, and separate the corresponding discussion into three cases.

I. Let  $b$  be less than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

(1) Let  $a$  be less than  $b$ ; the formula  $\sin B = \frac{\sin b}{\sin a} \sin A$  makes  $\beta$  greater than  $A$ , and *a fortiori*  $\beta'$  greater than  $A$ . Hence there are two solutions.

(2) Let  $a$  be equal to  $b$ ; then there is one solution, as previously shewn.

(3) Let  $a$  be greater than  $b$ ; we may have then  $a + b$  less than  $\pi$  or equal to  $\pi$  or greater than  $\pi$ . If  $a + b$  is less than  $\pi$ , then  $\sin a$  is greater than  $\sin b$ ; thus  $\beta$  is less than  $A$  and therefore admissible, and  $\beta'$  is greater than  $A$  and inadmissible. Hence there is one solution. If  $a + b$  is equal to  $\pi$ , then  $\beta$  is equal to  $A$ , and  $\beta'$  greater than  $A$ , and both are inadmissible. Hence there is no solution. If  $a + b$  is greater than  $\pi$ , then  $\sin a$  is less than  $\sin b$ , and  $\beta$  and  $\beta'$  are both greater than  $A$ , and both inadmissible. Hence there is no solution.

II. Let  $b$  be equal to  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

(1) Let  $a$  be less than  $b$ ; then  $\beta$  and  $\beta'$  are both greater than  $A$ , and both admissible. Hence there are two solutions.

(2) Let  $a$  be equal to  $b$ ; then there is no solution, as previously shewn.

(3) Let  $a$  be greater than  $b$ ; then  $\sin a$  is less than  $\sin b$ , and  $\beta$  and  $\beta'$  are both greater than  $A$ , and inadmissible. Hence there is no solution.

III. Let  $b$  be greater than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

(1) Let  $a$  be less than  $b$ ; we may have then  $a + b$  less than  $\pi$  or equal to  $\pi$  or greater than  $\pi$ . If  $a + b$  is less than  $\pi$ , then  $\sin a$  is less than  $\sin b$ , and  $\beta$  and  $\beta'$  are both greater than  $A$  and both admissible. Hence there are two solutions. If  $a + b$  is equal to  $\pi$ , then  $\beta$  is equal to  $A$  and is inadmissible, and  $\beta'$  is greater than  $A$  and admissible. Hence there is one solution. If  $a + b$  is greater than  $\pi$  then  $\sin a$  is greater than  $\sin b$ ;  $\beta$  is less than  $A$  and inadmissible, and  $\beta'$  greater than  $A$  and admissible. Hence there is one solution.

(2) Let  $a$  be equal to  $b$ ; then there is no solution, as previously shewn.

(3) Let  $a$  be greater than  $b$ ; then  $\sin a$  is less than  $\sin b$ , and  $\beta$  and  $\beta'$  are both greater than  $A$  and both inadmissible. Hence there is no solution.

We have then the following results when  $A$  is less than a right angle:

$b < \frac{\pi}{2}$	{	$a < b$ .....	two solutions,
		$a = b$ .....	one solution,
		$a > b$ and $a + b < \pi$ .....	one solution,
		$a > b$ and $a + b = \pi$ or $> \pi$ .....	no solution.
$b = \frac{\pi}{2}$	{	$a < b$ .....	two solutions,
		$a = b$ or $a > b$ .....	no solution.
$b > \frac{\pi}{2}$	{	$a < b$ and $a + b < \pi$ .....	two solutions,
		$a < b$ and $a + b = \pi$ or $> \pi$ .....	one solution,
		$a = b$ or $> b$ .....	no solution.

It must be remembered, however, that in the cases in which two solutions are indicated, there will be no solution at all if  $\sin a$  be less than  $\sin b \sin A$ .

In the same manner the cases in which  $A$  is equal to a right angle or greater than a right angle may be discussed, and the following results obtained :

*When  $A$  is equal to a right angle,*

$$\begin{array}{l}
 b < \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a < b \text{ or } a = b \dots\dots\dots \text{no solution,} \\ a > b \text{ and } a + b < \pi \dots\dots\dots \text{one solution,} \\ a > b \text{ and } a + b = \pi \text{ or } > \pi \dots\dots\dots \text{no solution.} \end{array} \right. \\
 b = \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a < b \text{ or } a > b \dots\dots\dots \text{no solution,} \\ a = b \dots\dots\dots \text{infinite number of solutions.} \end{array} \right. \\
 b > \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a < b \text{ and } a + b > \pi \dots\dots\dots \text{one solution,} \\ a < b \text{ and } a + b = \pi \text{ or } < \pi \dots\dots\dots \text{no solution,} \\ a = b \text{ or } a > b \dots\dots\dots \text{no solution.} \end{array} \right.
 \end{array}$$

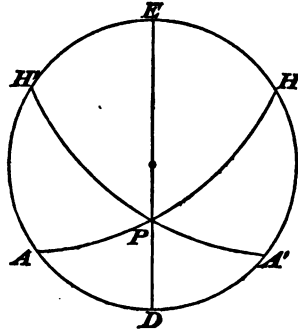
*When  $A$  is greater than a right angle,*

$$\begin{array}{l}
 b < \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a < b \text{ or } a = b \dots\dots\dots \text{no solution,} \\ a > b \text{ and } a + b = \pi \text{ or } < \pi \dots\dots\dots \text{one solution,} \\ a > b \text{ and } a + b > \pi \dots\dots\dots \text{two solutions.} \end{array} \right. \\
 b = \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a < b \text{ or } a = b \dots\dots\dots \text{no solution,} \\ a > b \dots\dots\dots \text{two solutions.} \end{array} \right. \\
 b > \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a < b \text{ and } a + b > \pi \dots\dots\dots \text{one solution,} \\ a < b \text{ and } a + b = \pi \text{ or } < \pi \dots\dots\dots \text{no solution,} \\ a = b \dots\dots\dots \text{one solution,} \\ a > b \dots\dots\dots \text{two solutions.} \end{array} \right.
 \end{array}$$

As before in the cases in which two solutions are indicated, there will be no solution at all if  $\sin a$  be less than  $\sin b \sin A$ .

It will be seen from the above investigations that if  $a$  lies between  $b$  and  $\pi - b$ , there will be one solution ; if  $a$  does not lie between  $b$  and  $\pi - b$  either there are two solutions or there is no solution ; this enunciation is not meant to include the cases in which  $a = b$  or  $a = \pi - b$ .

87. The results of the preceding article may be illustrated by a figure.



Let  $ADA'E$  be a great circle; suppose  $PA$  and  $PA'$  the projections on the plane of this circle of arcs which are each equal to  $b$  and inclined at an angle  $A$  to  $ADA'$ ; let  $PD$  and  $PE$  be the projections of the least and greatest distances of  $P$  from the great circle, (see Art. 59). Thus the figure supposes  $A$  and  $b$  each less than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

If  $a$  be less than the arc which is represented by  $PD$  there is no triangle; if  $a$  be between  $PD$  and  $PA$  in magnitude, there are two triangles, since  $B$  will fall on  $ADA'$ , and we have two triangles  $BPA$  and  $BPA'$ ; if  $a$  be between  $PA$  and  $PH$  there will be only one triangle, as  $B$  will fall on  $A'H$  or  $AH'$ , and the triangle will be either  $APB$  with  $B$  between  $A'$  and  $H$ , or else  $A'PB$  with  $B$  between  $A$  and  $H'$ ; but these two triangles are symmetrically equal (Art. 57); if  $a$  be greater than  $PH$  there will be no triangle. The figure will easily serve for all the cases; thus if  $A$  is greater than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , we can suppose  $PAE$  and  $PA'E$  to be equal to  $A$ ; if  $b$  is greater than  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , we can take  $PH$  and  $PH'$  to represent  $b$ .

88. The ambiguities which occur in the last case in the solution of oblique-angled triangles (Art. 85) may be discussed in the same manner as those in Art. 86; or by means of the polar triangle, the last case may be deduced from that of Art. 86.

## EXAMPLES.

1. The sides of a triangle are  $105^\circ$ ,  $90^\circ$ , and  $75^\circ$  respectively; find the sines of all the angles.

2. Prove that  $\tan \frac{1}{2} A \tan \frac{1}{2} B = \frac{\sin (s-c)}{\sin s}$ . Solve a triangle when a side, an adjacent angle, and the sum of the other two sides are given.

3. Solve a triangle having given a side, an adjacent angle and the sum of the other two angles.

4. A triangle has the sum of two sides equal to a semicircumference; find the arc joining the vertex with the midpoint of the base.

5. If  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$  are known,  $c$  being a quadrant, determine the angles; shew also that if  $\delta$  be the perpendicular on  $c$  from the opposite angle,  $\cos^2 \delta = \cos^2 a + \cos^2 b$ .

6. If one side of a spherical triangle be divided into four equal parts, and  $\theta_1$ ,  $\theta_2$ ,  $\theta_3$ ,  $\theta_4$  be the angles subtended at the opposite angle by the parts taken in order, shew that

$$\sin (\theta_1 + \theta_2) \sin \theta_3 \sin \theta_4 = \sin (\theta_3 + \theta_4) \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2.$$

7. In a spherical triangle if  $A = B = 2C$  shew that

$$8 \sin \left( a + \frac{c}{2} \right) \sin^2 \frac{c}{2} \cos \frac{c}{2} = \sin^3 a.$$

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8. In a spherical triangle

$$8 \sin^2 \frac{C}{2} (\cos$$

9. If the equal sides of  
by an arc  $DE$ , and  $BC$  be the

$$\sin \frac{DE}{2} =$$

10. If  $c_1, c_2$  be the two  
are given and the triangle is

$$\tan \frac{c_1}{2} \tan \frac{c_2}{2} =$$

VII. CIRCUMSCRIBED

89. To find the angle  
in a given triangle.



Let  $ABC$  be the triangle  
meeting in  $P$ ; from  $P$  draw  
sides. Then it may be shown  
also that  $AE = AF$ ,  $BF = B$   
the sum of the sides  $= s$ ; th

Now  $\tan PF = \tan$

thus  $\tan r = \tan$



The value of  $\tan r$  may be expressed in various forms; thus from Art. 45, we obtain

$$\tan \frac{A}{2} = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\sin(s-b) \sin(s-c)}{\sin s \sin(s-a)} \right\}};$$

substitute this value in (1), thus

$$\tan r = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\sin(s-a) \sin(s-b) \sin(s-c)}{\sin s} \right\}} = \frac{n}{\sin s} \text{ (Art. 46) } \dots (2).$$

Again

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(s-a) &= \sin\left\{\frac{1}{2}(b+c) - \frac{1}{2}a\right\} \\ &= \sin \frac{1}{2}(b+c) \cos \frac{1}{2}a - \cos \frac{1}{2}(b+c) \sin \frac{1}{2}a \\ &= \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}a \cos \frac{1}{2}a}{\sin \frac{1}{2}A} \left\{ \cos \frac{1}{2}(B-C) - \cos \frac{1}{2}(B+C) \right\}, \text{ (Art. 54)} \\ &= \frac{\sin a \sin \frac{1}{2}B \sin \frac{1}{2}C}{\sin \frac{1}{2}A}; \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{therefore from (1) } \tan r = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}B \sin \frac{1}{2}C}{\cos \frac{1}{2}A} \sin a \dots \dots \dots (3);$$

hence by Art. 51,

$$\begin{aligned} \tan r &= \frac{\sqrt{\{-\cos S \cos(S-A) \cos(S-B) \cos(S-C)\}}}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2}A \cos \frac{1}{2}B \cos \frac{1}{2}C} \\ &= \frac{N}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2}A \cos \frac{1}{2}B \cos \frac{1}{2}C} \dots \dots \dots (4). \end{aligned}$$

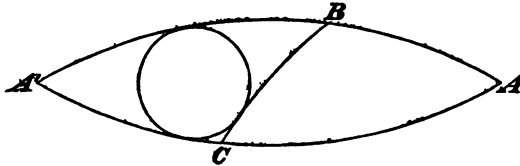
It may be shewn by common trigonometrical formulæ that

$$4 \cos \frac{1}{2}A \cos \frac{1}{2}B \cos \frac{1}{2}C = \cos S + \cos(S-A) + \cos(S-B) + \cos(S-C);$$

hence we have from (4)

$$\cot r = \frac{1}{2N} \left\{ \cos S + \cos(S-A) + \cos(S-B) + \cos(S-C) \right\} \dots \dots (5).$$

90. To find the angular radius of the small circle described so as to touch one side of a given triangle, and the other sides produced.



Let  $ABC$  be the triangle; and suppose we require the radius of the small circle which touches  $BC$ , and  $AB$  and  $AC$  produced. Produce  $AB$  and  $AC$  to meet in  $A'$ ; then we require the radius of the small circle inscribed in  $A'BC$ , and the sides of  $A'BC$  are  $a$ ,  $\pi - b$ ,  $\pi - c$  respectively. Hence if  $r_1$  be the required radius, and  $s$  denote as usual  $\frac{1}{2}(\alpha + b + c)$ , we have from Art. 89,

$$\tan r_1 = \tan \frac{A}{2} \sin s \dots\dots\dots(1).$$

From this result we may derive other equivalent forms as in the preceding article; or we may make use of those forms immediately, observing that the angles of the triangle  $A'BC$  are  $A$ ,  $\pi - B$ ,  $\pi - C$  respectively. Hence  $s$  being  $\frac{1}{2}(\alpha + b + c)$  and  $S$  being  $\frac{1}{2}(A + B + C)$  we shall obtain

$$\tan r_1 = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\sin s \sin (s - b) \sin (s - c)}{\sin (s - a)} \right\}} = \frac{n}{\sin (s - a)} \dots(2),$$

$$\tan r_1 = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2} B \cos \frac{1}{2} C}{\cos \frac{1}{2} A} \sin a \dots\dots\dots(3),$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tan r_1 &= \frac{\sqrt{\{-\cos S \cos (S - A) \cos (S - B) \cos (S - C)\}}}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2} A \sin \frac{1}{2} B \sin \frac{1}{2} C} \\ &= \frac{N}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2} A \sin \frac{1}{2} B \sin \frac{1}{2} C} \dots\dots\dots(4), \end{aligned}$$

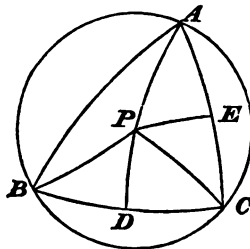
$$\cot r_1 = \frac{1}{2N} \{-\cos S - \cos (S - A) + \cos (S - B) + \cos (S - C)\} \dots(5).$$

These results may also be found independently by bisecting two of the angles of the triangle  $A'BC$ , so as to determine the pole of the small circle, and proceeding as in Art. 89.

91. A circle which touches one side of a triangle and the other sides produced is called an *escribed circle*; thus there are three escribed circles belonging to a given triangle. We may denote the radii of the escribed circles which touch  $CA$  and  $AB$  respectively by  $r_2$  and  $r_3$ , and values of  $\tan r_2$  and  $\tan r_3$  may be found from what has been already given with respect to  $\tan r_1$  by appropriate changes in the letters which denote the sides and angles.

In the preceding article a triangle  $A'BC$  was formed by producing  $AB$  and  $AC$  to meet again in  $A'$ ; similarly another triangle may be formed by producing  $BC$  and  $BA$  to meet again, and another by producing  $CA$  and  $CB$  to meet again. The original triangle  $ABC$  and the three formed from it have been called *associated triangles*,  $ABC$  being the fundamental triangle. Thus the inscribed and escribed circles of a given triangle are the same as the circles inscribed in the system of associated triangles of which the given triangle is the fundamental triangle.

92. *To find the angular radius of the small circle described about a given triangle.*



Let  $ABC$  be the given triangle; bisect the sides  $CB$ ,  $CA$  in  $D$  and  $E$  respectively, and draw from  $D$  and  $E$  arcs perpendicular to  $CB$  and  $CA$  respectively, and let  $P$  be the intersection of these

CIRCUMSCRIBED .

arcs. Then  $P$  will be the po  
 $ABC$ . For draw  $PA$ ,  $PB$ ,  
 triangles  $PCD$  and  $PBD$  it  
 the right-angled triangles  $PC$   
 hence  $PA = PB = PC$ . Also  
 the angle  $PBC =$  the angle  $l$   
 $PAC$ ; therefore  $PCB + A =$

Let  $PC = R$ .

Now  $\tan CD = \tan$   
 thus  $\tan \frac{1}{2} \alpha = \tan$

therefore  $\tan R = \frac{\tan$   
 $\cos$

The value of  $\tan R$  may be  
 if we substitute for  $\tan \frac{\alpha}{2}$  from

$$\tan R = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{-\cos}{\cos(S-A) \cos(S)}$$

Again  $\cos(S-A) = \cos\left\{\frac{1}{2}(B\right.$   
 $= \cos \frac{1}{2}(B$   
 $= \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} A \cos \frac{1}{2} A}{\cos \frac{1}{2} \alpha}$   
 $= \frac{\sin A}{\cos \frac{1}{2} \alpha} \cos \frac{1}{2} b$

therefore from (1)

$$\tan R = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} \alpha}{\sin A \cos \frac{1}{2} b \cos}$$

Substitute in the last ex  
 Art. 46; thus

$$\tan R = \frac{2 \sin \frac{1}{2} \alpha \sin \frac{1}{2}}{\sqrt{\{\sin s \sin (s-a) \sin$$
  
 $= \frac{2 \sin s}{\sin s}$

It may be shewn by common trigonometrical formulæ, that  
 $4 \sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b \sin \frac{1}{2} c = \sin (s - a) + \sin (s - b) + \sin (s - c) - \sin s$ ;  
 hence we have from (4)

$$\tan R = \frac{1}{2n} \left\{ \sin (s - a) + \sin (s - b) + \sin (s - c) - \sin s \right\} \dots \dots \dots (5).$$

93. *To find the angular radii of the small circles described round the triangles associated with a given fundamental triangle.*

Let  $R_1$  denote the radius of the circle described round the triangle formed by producing  $AB$  and  $AC$  to meet again in  $A'$ ; similarly let  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  denote the radii of the circles described round the other two triangles which are similarly formed. Then we may deduce expressions for  $\tan R_1$ ,  $\tan R_2$ , and  $\tan R_3$  from those found in Art. 92 for  $\tan R$ . The sides of the triangle  $A'BC$  are  $a$ ,  $\pi - b$ ,  $\pi - c$ , and its angles are  $A$ ,  $\pi - B$ ,  $\pi - C$ ; hence if  $s = \frac{1}{2}(a + b + c)$  and  $S = \frac{1}{2}(A + B + C)$  we shall obtain from Art. 92

$$\tan R_1 = \frac{\tan \frac{1}{2} a}{-\cos S} \dots \dots \dots (1),$$

$$\tan R_1 = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\cos (S - A)}{-\cos S \cos (S - B) \cos (S - C)} \right\}} = \frac{\cos (S - A)}{N} \dots (2),$$

$$\tan R_1 = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} a}{\sin A \sin \frac{1}{2} b \sin \frac{1}{2} c} \dots \dots \dots (3),$$

$$\tan R_1 = \frac{2 \sin \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b \cos \frac{1}{2} c}{\sqrt{\{\sin s \sin (s - a) \sin (s - b) \sin (s - c)\}}} \dots \dots \dots (4),$$

$$\tan R_1 = \frac{1}{2n} \left\{ \sin s - \sin (s - a) + \sin (s - b) + \sin (s - c) \right\} \dots \dots \dots (5).$$

Similarly we may find expressions for  $\tan R_2$  and  $\tan R_3$ .

94. Many examples may be proposed involving properties of the circles inscribed in and described about the associated triangles. We will give one that will be of use hereafter.

To prove that

$$(\cot r + \tan R)^2 = \frac{1}{4n^2} (\sin a + \sin b + \sin c)^2 - 1.$$

We have

$$4n^2 = 1 - \cos^2 a - \cos^2 b - \cos^2 c + 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c;$$

therefore

$$\begin{aligned} & (\sin a + \sin b + \sin c)^2 - 4n^2 \\ &= 2 \left( 1 + \sin a \sin b + \sin b \sin c + \sin c \sin a - \cos a \cos b \cos c \right). \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Also } \cot r + \tan R = \frac{1}{2n} \left\{ \sin s + \sin (s-a) + \sin (s-b) + \sin (s-c) \right\};$$

and by squaring both members of this equation the required result will be obtained. For it may be shewn by reduction that  $\sin^2 s + \sin^2 (s-a) + \sin^2 (s-b) + \sin^2 (s-c) = 2 - 2 \cos a \cos b \cos c$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} & \sin s \sin (s-a) + \sin s \sin (s-b) + \sin s \sin (s-c) \\ &+ \sin (s-a) \sin (s-b) + \sin (s-b) \sin (s-c) + \sin (s-c) \sin (s-a) \\ &= \sin a \sin b + \sin b \sin c + \sin c \sin a. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly we may prove that

$$(\cot r_1 - \tan R)^2 = \frac{1}{4n^2} (\sin b + \sin c - \sin a)^2 - 1.$$

95. In the figure to Art. 89, suppose  $DP$  produced through  $P$  to a point  $A'$  such that  $DA'$  is a quadrant, then  $A'$  is a pole of  $BC$  and  $PA' = \frac{\pi}{2} - r$ ; similarly, suppose  $EP$  produced through  $P$  to a point  $B'$  such that  $EB'$  is a quadrant, and  $FP$  produced through  $P$  to a point  $C'$  such that  $FC'$  is a quadrant. Then  $A'B'C'$  is the polar triangle of  $ABC$ , and  $PA' = PB' = PC' = \frac{\pi}{2} - r$ .

Thus  $P$  is the pole of the small circle described round the polar triangle, and the angular radius of the small circle described round the polar triangle is the complement of the angular radius of the

small circle inscribed in the primitive triangle. And in like manner the point which is the pole of the small circle inscribed in the polar triangle is also the pole of the small circle described round the primitive triangle, and the angular radii of the two circles are complementary.

## EXAMPLES.

In the following examples the notation of the chapter is retained.

Shew that in any triangle the following relations hold contained in Examples 1 to 5 :

1.  $\tan r_1 \tan r_2 \tan r_3 = \tan r \sin^2 a.$
2.  $\tan R + \cot r = \tan R_1 + \cot r_1 = \tan R_2 + \cot r_2$   
 $= \tan R_3 + \cot r_3 = \frac{1}{2} (\cot r + \cot r_1 + \cot r_2 + \cot r_3).$
3.  $\tan^2 R + \tan^2 R_1 + \tan^2 R_2 + \tan^2 R_3$   
 $= \cot^2 r + \cot^2 r_1 + \cot^2 r_2 + \cot^2 r_3.$
4.  $\frac{\tan r_1 + \tan r_2 + \tan r_3 - \tan r}{\cot r_1 + \cot r_2 + \cot r_3 - \cot r} = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos a + \cos b + \cos c).$
5.  $\tan R_1 \tan R_2 \tan R_3 = \tan R \sec^2 S.$
6. Shew that in an equilateral triangle  $\tan R = 2 \tan r.$

7. If  $ABC$  be an equilateral spherical triangle,  $P$  the pole of the circle circumscribing it,  $Q$  any point on the sphere, shew that

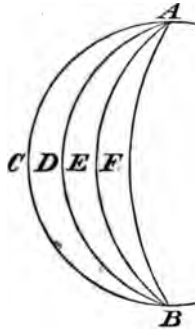
$$\cos QA + \cos QB + \cos QC = 3 \cos PA \cos PQ.$$

8. If three small circles be inscribed in a spherical triangle having each of its angles  $120^\circ$ , so that each touches the other two as well as two sides of the triangle, prove that the radius of each of the small circles  $= 30^\circ$ , and that the centres of the three small circles coincide with the angular points of the polar triangle.

VIII. AREA OF A SPHERICAL  
SPHERICAL

96. To find the area of a Lune

A *Lune* is that portion of the surface of a sphere bounded by two great semicircles



Let  $ACBDA$ ,  $ADBEA$  be two lunes, then one of these lunes may be supposed to coincide exactly with it; thus they are equal. Then by a process similar to that of Euclid it may be shewn that the area of a lune is proportional to its angle. Hence since the whole surface of a sphere is considered as a lune with an angle of  $4$  right angles, we have for a lune with an angle of  $A$ ,

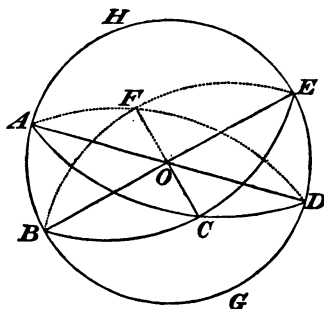
$$\frac{\text{area of lune}}{\text{surface of sphere}}$$

Suppose  $r$  the radius of the sphere, then the surface of the sphere is  $4\pi r^2$  (*Integral Calculus*, Chap. VII.); thus

$$\text{area of lune} = \frac{A}{2\pi} \cdot 4\pi r^2$$



97. To find the area of a Spherical Triangle.



Let  $ABC$  be a spherical triangle ; produce the arcs which form its sides until they meet again two and two, which will happen when each has become equal to the semi-circumference. The triangle  $ABC$  now forms a part of three lunes, namely,  $ABDCA$ ,  $BCEAB$ , and  $CAFBC$ . Now the triangles  $CDE$  and  $AFB$  are subtended by vertically opposite solid angles at  $O$ , and we will assume that their areas are equal ; therefore the lune  $CAFBC$  is equal to the sum of the two triangles  $ABC$  and  $CDE$ . Hence if  $A, B, C$  denote the circular measures of the angles of the triangle, we have

$$\text{triangle } ABC + BGDC = \text{lune } ABDCA = 2Ar^2,$$

$$\text{triangle } ABC + AHFC = \text{lune } BCEAB = 2Br^2,$$

$$\text{triangle } ABC + \text{triangle } CDE = \text{lune } CAFBC = 2Cr^2;$$

hence, by addition,

$$\text{twice triangle } ABC + \text{surface of hemisphere} = 2(A + B + C)r^2;$$

$$\text{therefore} \quad \text{triangle } ABC = (A + B + C - \pi)r^2.$$

The expression  $A + B + C - \pi$  is called the *spherical excess* of the triangle ; and since

$$(A + B + C - \pi)r^2 = \frac{A + B + C - \pi}{2\pi} 2\pi r^2,$$

the result obtained may be thus enunciated, *the area of a spherical triangle is the same fraction of the surface of the hemisphere as the spherical excess is of four right angles.*

98. We have assumed, as is usually done, that the areas of the triangles  $CDE$  and  $AFB$  in the preceding article are equal. The triangles are, however, not absolutely equal, but *symmetrically* equal (Art. 57), so that one cannot be made to coincide with the other by superposition. It is, however, easy to decompose two such triangles into pieces which admit of superposition, and thus to prove that their areas are equal. For describe a small circle round each, then the angular radii of these circles will be equal by Art. 89. If the pole of the circumscribing circle falls inside each triangle, then each triangle is the sum of three isosceles triangles, and if the pole falls outside each triangle, then each triangle is the excess of two isosceles triangles over a third; and in each case the isosceles triangles of one set are respectively *absolutely equal* to the corresponding isosceles triangles of the other set.

99. *To find the area of a spherical polygon.*

Let  $n$  be the number of sides of the polygon,  $\Sigma$  the sum of all its angles. Take any point within the polygon and join it with all the angular points; thus the figure is divided into  $n$  triangles. Hence by Art. 97,

$$\text{area of polygon} = (\text{sum of the angles of the triangles} - n\pi) r^2,$$

and the sum of the angles of the triangles is equal to  $\Sigma$  together with the four right angles which are formed round the common vertex; therefore

$$\text{area of polygon} = \left\{ \Sigma - (n - 2) \pi \right\} r^2.$$

This expression is true even when the polygon has some of its angles greater than two right angles, provided it can be decomposed into triangles, of which each of the angles is less than two right angles.

70 AREA OF A SPHERICAL TRIANGLE. SPHERICAL EXCESS.

100. We shall now give some expressions for certain trigonometrical functions of the *spherical excess* of a triangle. We denote the spherical excess by  $E$ , so that  $E = A + B + C - \pi$ .

101. *Cagnoli's Theorem.* To prove that

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \frac{1}{2} E &= \frac{\sqrt{\{\sin s \sin (s-a) \sin (s-b) \sin (s-c)\}}}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b \cos \frac{1}{2} c}. \\ \sin \frac{1}{2} E &= \sin \frac{1}{2} (A + B + C - \pi) = \sin \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (A + B) - \frac{1}{2} (\pi - C) \right\} \\ &= \sin \frac{1}{2} (A + B) \sin \frac{1}{2} C - \cos \frac{1}{2} (A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2} C \\ &= \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} C \cos \frac{1}{2} C}{\cos \frac{1}{2} c} \cdot \{\cos \frac{1}{2} (a-b) - \cos \frac{1}{2} (a+b)\}, \text{ (Art. 54),} \\ &= \frac{\sin C \sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b}{\cos \frac{1}{2} c} \\ &= \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b}{\cos \frac{1}{2} c} \cdot \frac{2}{\sin a \sin b} \cdot \sqrt{\{\sin s \sin (s-a) \sin (s-b) \sin (s-c)\}} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{\{\sin s \sin (s-a) \sin (s-b) \sin (s-c)\}}}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b \cos \frac{1}{2} c}. \end{aligned}$$

102. *Lhuillier's Theorem.* To prove that

$$\begin{aligned} \tan \frac{1}{4} E &= \sqrt{\{\tan \frac{1}{2} s \tan \frac{1}{2} (s-a) \tan \frac{1}{2} (s-b) \tan \frac{1}{2} (s-c)\}}. \\ \tan \frac{1}{4} E &= \frac{\sin \frac{1}{4} (A + B + C - \pi)}{\cos \frac{1}{4} (A + B + C - \pi)} = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} (A + B) - \sin \frac{1}{2} (\pi - C)}{\cos \frac{1}{2} (A + B) + \cos \frac{1}{2} (\pi - C)}, \\ &\quad \text{(Plane Trig. Art. 83),} \\ &= \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} (A + B) - \cos \frac{1}{2} C}{\cos \frac{1}{2} (A + B) + \sin \frac{1}{2} C} = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2} (a-b) - \cos \frac{1}{2} c}{\cos \frac{1}{2} (a+b) + \cos \frac{1}{2} c} \cdot \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2} C}{\sin \frac{1}{2} C}, \\ &\quad \text{(Art. 54),} \\ &= \frac{\sin \frac{1}{4} (c + a - b) \sin \frac{1}{4} (c + b - a)}{\cos \frac{1}{4} (a + b + c) \cos \frac{1}{4} (a + b - c)} \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\sin s \sin (s-c)}{\sin (s-a) \sin (s-b)} \right\}}, \\ &\quad \text{(Art. 45),} \\ &= \sqrt{\{\tan \frac{1}{2} s \tan \frac{1}{2} (s-a) \tan \frac{1}{2} (s-b) \tan \frac{1}{2} (s-c)\}}. \end{aligned}$$

103. We may obtain many other formulæ involving trigonometrical functions of the spherical excess. Thus, for example,

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \frac{1}{2} E &= \cos \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (A + B) - \frac{1}{2} (\pi - C) \right\} \\ &= \cos \frac{1}{2} (A + B) \sin \frac{1}{2} C + \sin \frac{1}{2} (A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2} C \\ &= \left\{ \cos \frac{1}{2} (a + b) \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C + \cos \frac{1}{2} (a - b) \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} C \right\} \sec \frac{1}{2} c, \text{ (Art. 54),} \\ &= \left\{ \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b (\cos^2 \frac{1}{2} C + \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b (\cos^2 \frac{1}{2} C - \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} C) \right\} \sec \frac{1}{2} c \\ &= \left\{ \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b + \sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b \cos C \right\} \sec \frac{1}{2} c. \end{aligned}$$

Again, it was shewn in Art. 101, that

$$\sin \frac{1}{2} E = \sin C \sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b \sec \frac{1}{2} c;$$

$$\text{therefore } \tan \frac{1}{2} E = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b \sin C}{\cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b + \sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b \cos C}.$$

Again, we have from above

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \frac{1}{2} E &= \left\{ \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b + \sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b \cos C \right\} \sec \frac{1}{2} c. \\ &= \frac{(1 + \cos a)(1 + \cos b) + \sin a \sin b \cos C}{4 \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b \cos \frac{1}{2} c} \\ &= \frac{1 + \cos a + \cos b + \cos c}{4 \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b \cos \frac{1}{2} c} = \frac{\cos^2 \frac{1}{2} a + \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} b + \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} c - 1}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b \cos \frac{1}{2} c}. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLES.

1. Find the angles and sides of an equilateral triangle whose area is one-fourth of that of the sphere on which it is described.

2. Find the surface of an equilateral and equiangular spherical polygon of  $n$  sides, and determine the value of each of the angles when the surface equals half the surface of the sphere.

3. If  $a = b = \frac{\pi}{3}$ , and  $c = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , shew that  $E = \cos^{-1} \frac{7}{9}$ .

4. If the angle  $C$  of a spherical triangle be a right angle shew that

$$\sin \frac{1}{2} E = \sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b \sec \frac{1}{2} c, \quad \cos \frac{1}{2} E = \cos \frac{1}{2} a \cos \frac{1}{2} b \sec \frac{1}{2} c$$

5. If the angle  $C$  be a right angle, shew that

$$\frac{\sin^2 c}{\cos c} \cos E = \frac{\sin^2 a}{\cos a} + \frac{\sin^2 b}{\cos b}.$$

6. If  $a = b$  and  $C = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , shew that  $\tan E = \frac{\sin^2 a}{2 \cos a}$ .

7. The sum of the angles in a right-angled triangle is than four right angles.

8. Draw through a given point in the side of a spherical triangle an arc of a great circle cutting off a given part of triangle.

9. If the angles of a spherical triangle be together equal four right angles

$$\cos^2 \frac{1}{2} a + \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} b + \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} c = 1.$$

10. If  $r_1, r_2, r_3$  be the radii of three small circles of sphere of radius  $r$  which touch one another in  $P, Q, R$ ;  $A, B, C$  be the angles of the spherical triangle formed by join their centres,

$$\text{area } PQR = (A \cos r_1 + B \cos r_2 + C \cos r_3 - \pi) r^2.$$

11. Shew that

$$\sin s = \frac{\left\{ \sin \frac{1}{2} E \sin (A - \frac{1}{2} E) \sin (B - \frac{1}{2} E) \sin (C - \frac{1}{2} E) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}}{2 \sin \frac{1}{2} A \sin \frac{1}{2} B \sin \frac{1}{2} C}.$$

12. Given two sides of a spherical triangle, determine w the area is a maximum.

13. Find the area of a regular polygon of a given number sides formed by arcs of great circles on the surface of a sphere and hence deduce that, if  $a$  be the angular radius of a spherical circle, its area is to that of the whole surface of the sphere as  $\text{versin } a$  to 2.



and

$$\sin \frac{1}{2} b \sin \frac{1}{2} c = \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b+c) - \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b-c),$$

$$\cos \frac{1}{2} b \cos \frac{1}{2} c = \cos^2 \frac{1}{4} (b+c) - \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b-c);$$

therefore

$$\cos A + \theta \sin A = \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b+c) - \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b-c)$$

$$+ \left\{ 1 - \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b+c) - \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b-c) \right\} \cos A;$$

therefore

$$\theta \sin A = (1 - \cos A) \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b+c) - (1 + \cos A) \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b-c),$$

therefore

$$\theta = \tan \frac{1}{2} A \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b+c) - \cot \frac{1}{2} A \sin^2 \frac{1}{4} (b-c).$$

This gives the *circular measure* of  $\theta$ ; the number of seconds in the angle is found by dividing the circular measure by the circular measure of one second, or approximately by the sine of one second (*Plane Trigonometry*, Art. 123). If the lengths of the arcs corresponding to  $a$  and  $b$  respectively be  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , and  $r$  the radius of the sphere, we have  $\frac{\alpha}{r}$  and  $\frac{\beta}{r}$  as the circular measures of  $a$  and  $b$  respectively; and the lengths of the sides of the chordal triangle are  $2r \sin \frac{\alpha}{2r}$  and  $2r \sin \frac{\beta}{2r}$  respectively. Thus when the sides of the spherical triangle and the radius of the sphere are known, we can calculate the angles and sides of the chordal triangle.

106. Legendre's Theorem. *If the sides of a spherical triangle be small compared with the radius of the sphere, then each angle of the spherical triangle exceeds by one third of the spherical excess the corresponding angle of the plane triangle, the sides of which are of the same length as the arcs of the spherical triangle.*

Let  $A, B, C$  be the angles of the spherical triangle;  $a, b, c$  the sides;  $r$  the radius of the sphere;  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  the lengths of the arcs which form the sides, so that  $\frac{\alpha}{r}, \frac{\beta}{r}, \frac{\gamma}{r}$  are the circular measures of  $a, b, c$  respectively. Then

$$\cos A = \frac{\cos a - \cos b \cos c}{\sin b \sin c};$$

now 
$$\cos a = 1 - \frac{a^2}{2r^2} + \frac{a^4}{24r^4} - \dots,$$

$$\sin a = \frac{a}{r} - \frac{a^3}{6r^3} + \dots$$

Similar expressions hold for  $\cos b$  and  $\sin b$ , and for  $\cos c$  and  $\sin c$  respectively. Hence, if we neglect powers of the circular measure above the *fourth*, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \cos A &= \frac{1 - \frac{a^2}{2r^2} + \frac{a^4}{24r^4} - \left(1 - \frac{\beta^2}{2r^2} + \frac{\beta^4}{24r^4}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\gamma^2}{2r^2} + \frac{\gamma^4}{24r^4}\right)}{\frac{\beta\gamma}{r^2} \left(1 - \frac{\beta^2}{6r^2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\gamma^2}{6r^2}\right)} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{2r^2} (\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - a^2) + \frac{1}{24r^4} (a^4 - \beta^4 - \gamma^4 - 6\beta^2\gamma^2)}{\frac{\beta\gamma}{r^2} \left(1 - \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2}{6r^2}\right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\beta\gamma} \left\{ \beta^2 + \gamma^2 - a^2 + \frac{1}{12r^2} (a^4 - \beta^4 - \gamma^4 - 6\beta^2\gamma^2) \right\} \left\{ 1 + \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2}{6r^2} \right\} \\ &= \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - a^2}{2\beta\gamma} + \frac{a^4 + \beta^4 + \gamma^4 - 2a^2\beta^2 - 2\beta^2\gamma^2 - 2\gamma^2a^2}{24\beta\gamma r^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now let  $A', B', C'$  be the angles of the plane triangle whose sides are  $a, \beta, \gamma$  respectively; then

$$\cos A' = \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - a^2}{2\beta\gamma},$$

thus 
$$\cos A = \cos A' - \frac{\beta\gamma \sin^2 A'}{6r^2}.$$

Suppose  $A = A' + \theta$ ; then

$$\cos A = \cos A' - \theta \sin A' \text{ approximately;}$$

therefore 
$$\theta = \frac{\beta\gamma \sin A'}{6r^2} = \frac{S}{3r^2},$$



where  $S$  denotes the area of the plane triangle whose sides are  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ . Similarly

$$B = B' + \frac{S}{3r^2} \text{ and } C = C' + \frac{S}{3r^2};$$

hence approximately

$$A + B + C = A' + B' + C' + \frac{S}{r^2} = \pi + \frac{S}{r^2};$$

therefore  $\frac{S}{r^2}$  is approximately equal to the spherical excess of the spherical triangle, and thus the theorem is established.

It will be seen that in the above approximation the area of the spherical triangle is considered equal to the area of the plane triangle which can be found with sides of the same length.

107. Legendre's Theorem may be used for the approximate solution of spherical triangles in the following manner:

(1) Suppose the three sides of a spherical triangle known; then the values of  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  are known, and by the formulæ of Plane Trigonometry we can calculate  $S$  and  $A', B', C'$ ; then  $A, B, C$  are known from the formulæ

$$A = A' + \frac{S}{3r^2}, \quad B = B' + \frac{S}{3r^2}, \quad C = C' + \frac{S}{3r^2}.$$

(2) Suppose two sides and the included angle of a spherical triangle known, for example  $A, b, c$ . Then

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \beta \gamma \sin A' = \frac{1}{2} \beta \gamma \sin A \text{ approximately.}$$

Then  $A'$  is known from the formula  $A' = A - \frac{S}{3r^2}$ . Thus in the plane triangle two sides and the included angle are known; therefore its remaining parts can be calculated, and then those of the spherical triangle become known.



109. To find an approximate value of the spherical excess.

Let  $E$  denote the spherical excess; then

$$\sin \frac{1}{2} E = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} a \sin \frac{1}{2} b \sin C}{\cos \frac{1}{2} c};$$

therefore approximately

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \frac{1}{2} E &= \sin C \frac{\alpha\beta}{4r^2} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{24r^2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\beta^2}{24r^2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\gamma^2}{8r^2}\right)^{-1} \\ &= \sin C \frac{\alpha\beta}{4r^2} \left(1 + \frac{3\gamma^2 - \alpha^2 - \beta^2}{24r^2}\right); \end{aligned}$$

therefore  $E = \sin C \frac{\alpha\beta}{2r^2} \left(1 + \frac{3\gamma^2 - \alpha^2 - \beta^2}{24r^2}\right) \dots\dots\dots (1),$

and  $\sin C = \sin \left(C' + \frac{1}{3} E\right) = \sin C' + \frac{1}{3} E \cos C'$

$$= \sin C' + \frac{\sin C' \cos C'}{3} \frac{\alpha\beta}{2r^2} = \sin C' \left(1 + \frac{\alpha^2 + \beta^2 - \gamma^2}{12r^2}\right) \dots (2).$$

From (1) and (2)

$$E = \sin C' \frac{\alpha\beta}{2r^2} \left(1 + \frac{\alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2}{24r^2}\right).$$

Hence to this order of approximation the area of the spherical triangle exceeds that of the plane triangle by the fraction  $\frac{\alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2}{24r^2}$  of the latter.

110. To find an approximate value of  $\frac{\sin A}{\sin B}$ .

$$\frac{\sin A}{\sin B} = \frac{\sin a}{\sin b};$$

hence approximately  $\frac{\sin A}{\sin B} = \frac{\alpha \left(1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{6r^2} + \frac{\alpha^4}{120r^4}\right)}{\beta \left(1 - \frac{\beta^2}{6r^2} + \frac{\beta^4}{120r^4}\right)}$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha^2}{6r^2} + \frac{\alpha^4}{120r^4} + \frac{\beta^2}{6r^2} - \frac{\alpha^2\beta^2}{36r^4} - \frac{\beta^4}{120r^4} + \frac{\beta^4}{36r^4} \right) \\
&= \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \left\{ 1 + \frac{\beta^2 - \alpha^2}{6r^2} + \frac{\alpha^4 - \beta^4}{120r^4} + \frac{\beta^2(\beta^2 - \alpha^2)}{36r^4} \right\} \\
&= \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \left\{ 1 + \frac{\beta^2 - \alpha^2}{6r^2} \left( 1 + \frac{\beta^2}{6r^2} - \frac{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}{20r^2} \right) \right\} \\
&= \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \left\{ 1 + \frac{\beta^2 - \alpha^2}{6r^2} \left( 1 + \frac{7\beta^2 - 3\alpha^2}{60r^2} \right) \right\}.
\end{aligned}$$

111. To express  $\cot B - \cot A$  approximately.

$$\cot B - \cot A = \frac{1}{\sin B} (\cos B - \frac{\sin B}{\sin A} \cos A);$$

hence, approximately, by Art. 110,

$$\cot B - \cot A = \frac{1}{\sin B} (\cos B - \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \cos A - \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \frac{\alpha^2 - \beta^2}{6r^2} \cos A).$$

Now we have shewn in Art. 106, that approximately

$$\cos A = \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - \alpha^2}{2\beta\gamma} + \frac{\alpha^4 + \beta^4 + \gamma^4 - 2\alpha^2\beta^2 - 2\beta^2\gamma^2 - 2\gamma^2\alpha^2}{24\beta\gamma r^2},$$

therefore  $\cos B - \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \cos A = \frac{\alpha^2 - \beta^2}{\alpha\gamma}$  approximately,

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{and } \cot B - \cot A &= \frac{\alpha^2 - \beta^2}{\alpha\gamma \sin B} - \frac{\alpha^2 - \beta^2}{\alpha\gamma \sin B} \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - \alpha^2}{12r^2} \\
&= \frac{\alpha^2 - \beta^2}{\alpha\gamma \sin B} \left( 1 - \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - \alpha^2}{12r^2} \right).
\end{aligned}$$

112. The approximations in Arts. 109 and 110 are true so far as terms involving  $r^4$ ; that in Art. 111 is true so far as terms involving  $r^2$ , and it will be seen that we are thus able to carry the approximations in the following article so far as terms involving  $r^4$ .

113. *To find an approximate value of the error in the length of a side of a spherical triangle when calculated by Legendre's Theorem.*

Suppose the side  $\beta$  known and the side  $a$  required; let  $3\mu$  denote the spherical excess which is adopted. Then the approximate value  $\frac{\beta \sin(A-\mu)}{\sin(B-\mu)}$  is taken for the side of which  $a$  is the real value. Let  $x = a - \frac{\beta \sin(A-\mu)}{\sin(B-\mu)}$ ; we have then to find  $x$  approximately. Now approximately

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sin(A-\mu)}{\sin(B-\mu)} &= \frac{\sin A - \mu \cos A - \frac{\mu^2}{2} \sin A}{\sin B - \mu \cos B - \frac{\mu^2}{2} \sin B} \\ &= \frac{\sin A}{\sin B} \left(1 - \mu \cot A - \frac{\mu^2}{2}\right) \left(1 - \mu \cot B - \frac{\mu^2}{2}\right)^{-1} \\ &= \frac{\sin A}{\sin B} \left\{1 + \mu (\cot B - \cot A) + \mu^2 \cot B (\cot B - \cot A)\right\} \\ &= \frac{\sin A}{\sin B} + \frac{\mu \sin A}{\sin B} (\cot B - \cot A) (1 + \mu \cot B). \end{aligned}$$

Also the following formulæ are true so far as terms involving  $r^2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sin A}{\sin B} &= \frac{a}{\beta} \left(1 + \frac{\beta^2 - a^2}{6r^2}\right), \\ \cot B - \cot A &= \frac{a^2 - \beta^2}{a\gamma \sin B} \left(1 - \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - a^2}{12r^2}\right), \\ 1 + \mu \cot B &= 1 + \frac{a^2 + \gamma^2 - \beta^2}{12r^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, approximately,

$$\frac{\sin A}{\sin B} (\cot B - \cot A) (1 + \mu \cot B) = \frac{a^2 - \beta^2}{\beta\gamma \sin B}.$$

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Therefore 
$$x = a - \frac{\beta \sin A}{\sin B} - \frac{\mu (\alpha^2 - \beta^2)}{\gamma \sin C}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha (\beta^2 - \alpha^2)}{6} \left\{ \frac{6\mu}{\alpha \gamma \sin B} - \frac{1}{r^2} + \frac{3\alpha^2 - \beta^2}{60} \right\}$$

If we calculate  $\mu$  from the formula  $\mu$

$$x = \frac{\alpha (\beta^2 - \alpha^2) (3\alpha^2 - \beta^2)}{360r^4}$$

If we calculate  $\mu$  from an equation Art. 109, we have

$$\mu = \frac{\alpha \gamma \sin B}{6r^2} \left( 1 + \frac{3\beta^2 - \alpha^2}{2} \right)$$

therefore 
$$x = \frac{\alpha (\beta^2 - \alpha^2) (\alpha^2 + \beta^2 - \gamma^2)}{720r^4}$$

MISCELLANEOUS EXAM

1. If the sides of a spherical triangle be  $a, b, c$ , so that  $BB', CC'$  are the semi-circles respectively, prove that the arc  $B'C'$  will be equal to the angle  $A$  if the centre of the sphere equal to the angle  $A$  and  $AC$ .

2. Deduce Legendre's Theorem from

$$\tan^2 \frac{A}{2} = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} (a + b - c) \sin \frac{1}{2} (a + c - b)}{\sin \frac{1}{2} (b + c - a) \sin \frac{1}{2} (a + b + c)}$$

3. Four points  $A, B, C, D$  on the surface of a sphere be joined by arcs of great circles, and  $E, F$  be the mid-points of the arcs  $AC, BD$ ; shew that

$$\cos AB + \cos BC + \cos CD + \cos DA = \cos AC + \cos BD$$

4. If a quadrilateral  $ABCD$  be inscribed in a sphere so that two opposite angles  $A, C$  be equal, shew that

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extremities of a diameter the sum of the cosines of the sides is constant.

5.  $ABC$  is a spherical triangle each of whose sides is a quadrant,  $P$  any point within the triangle; shew that

$$\cos PA \cos PB \cos PC + \cot BPC \cot CPA \cot APB = 0,$$

$$\text{and} \quad \tan ABP \tan BCP \tan CAP = 1.$$

6. If  $O$  be the middle point of an equilateral triangle  $ABC$ , and  $P$  any point upon the surface of the sphere,

$$\frac{1}{4} (\tan PO \tan OA)^2 (\cos PA + \cos PB + \cos PC)^2 =$$

$$\cos^2 PA + \cos^2 PB + \cos^2 PC - \cos PA \cos PB - \cos PB \cos PC - \cos PC \cos PA.$$

7. If  $ABC$  be a triangle having each side a quadrant,  $O$  the pole of the inscribed circle,  $P$  any point on the sphere, then

$$(\cos PA + \cos PB + \cos PC)^2 = 3 \cos^2 PO.$$

8. From each of three points on the surface of a sphere arcs are drawn on the surface to three other points situated on a great circle of the sphere, and their cosines are  $a, b, c; a', b', c'; a'', b'', c''$ . Shew that

$$ab''c' + a'bc'' + a''b'c = ab'c'' + a'b''c + a''bc'.$$

9. Prove the following approximate formula (Arts. 110, 111),

$$\log \beta = \log a + \log \sin B - \log \sin A + \frac{S}{3r^2} (\cot A - \cot B).$$

10. By continuing the approximation in Art. 106 so as to include the terms involving  $r^4$ , shew that approximately

$$\cos A = \cos A' - \frac{\beta\gamma \sin^2 A'}{6r^2} + \frac{\beta\gamma (a^2 - 3\beta^2 - 3\gamma^2) \sin^2 A'}{180r^4}.$$

11. From the preceding result shew that if  $A = A' + \theta$  then approximately

$$\theta = \frac{\beta\gamma \sin A'}{6r^2} \left( 1 + \frac{7\beta^2 + 7\gamma^2 + a^2}{120r^2} \right).$$

## X. GEODETICAL OPERATIONS.

114. One of the most important applications of Trigonometry, both Plane and Spherical, is to the determination of the figure and dimensions of the Earth itself, and of any portion of its surface. We shall give a brief outline of the subject, and for further information refer to Woodhouse's *Trigonometry*, to the article *Trigonometrical Survey* in the *Penny Cyclopædia*, and to Airy's treatise on the *Figure of the Earth* in the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*. For practical knowledge of the subject it will be necessary to study some of the published accounts of the great surveys which have been effected in different parts of the world, as for example, the *Account of the measurement of two sections of the Meridional arc of India*, by Lieut. Colonel Everest, 1847; or the *Account of the Observations and Calculations of the Principal Triangulations in the Ordnance Survey of Great Britain and Ireland*, 1858.

115. An important part of any survey consists in the measurement of a horizontal line, which is called a *base*. A level plain of a few miles in length is selected and a line is measured on it with every precaution to ensure accuracy. Rods of deal, and of metal, hollow tubes of glass, and steel chains, have been used in different surveys; the temperature is carefully observed during the operations, and allowance is made for the varying lengths of the rods or chains, which arise from variations in the temperature.

116. At various points of the country suitable stations are selected and signals erected; then by supposing lines to be drawn connecting the signals, the country is divided into a series of triangles. The angles of these triangles are observed, that is, the angles which any two signals subtend at a third. For example, suppose  $A$  and  $B$  to denote the extremities of the *base*, and  $C$  a



signal at a third point visible from  $A$  and  $B$ ; then in the triangle  $ABC$  the angles  $ABC$  and  $BAC$  are observed, and then  $AC$  and  $BC$  can be calculated. Again, let  $D$  be a signal at a fourth point, such that it is visible from  $C$  and  $A$ ; then the angles  $ACD$  and  $CAD$  are observed, and as  $AC$  is known,  $CD$  and  $AD$  can be calculated.

117. Besides the original *base* other lines are measured in various parts of the country surveyed, and their measured lengths are compared with their lengths obtained by calculation through a series of triangles from the original base. The degree of closeness with which the measured length agrees with the calculated length is a test of the accuracy of the survey. During the progress of the Ordnance Survey of Great Britain and Ireland, lines have been measured in various places; the last two are one near Lough Foyle in Ireland, which was measured in 1827 and 1828, and one on Salisbury Plain, which was measured in 1849. The line near Lough Foyle is nearly 8 miles long, and the line on Salisbury Plain is nearly 7 miles long; and the difference between the length of the line on Salisbury Plain as measured and as calculated from the Lough Foyle base is less than 5 inches (*An Account of the Observations, &c.* page 419).

118. There are various methods of effecting the calculations for determining the lengths of the sides of all the triangles in the survey. One method is to use the exact formulæ of Spherical Trigonometry. The radius of the Earth may be considered known very approximately; let this radius be denoted by  $r$ , then if  $a$  be the length of any arc the circular measure of the angle which the arc subtends at the centre of the earth is  $\frac{a}{r}$ . The formulæ of Spherical Trigonometry give expressions for the trigonometrical functions of  $\frac{a}{r}$ , so that  $\frac{a}{r}$  may be found and then  $a$ . Since in practice  $\frac{a}{r}$  is always very small, it becomes necessary to pay

attention to the methods of securing accuracy in calculations which involve the logarithmic trigonometrical functions of small angles (*Plane Trigonometry*, Art. 205).

Instead of the exact calculation of the triangles by Spherical Trigonometry, various methods of approximation have been proposed; only two of these methods however have been much used. One method of approximation consists in deducing from the angles of the spherical triangles the angles of the *chordal triangles*, and then computing the latter triangles by Plane Trigonometry (see Art. 105). The other method of approximation consists in the use of Legendre's Theorem (see Art. 106).

119. The three methods which we have indicated were all used by Delambre in calculating the triangles in the French survey (*Base du Système Métrique*, Tome III. page 7). In the earlier operations of the Trigonometrical survey of Great Britain and Ireland, the triangles were calculated by the chord method; but this has been for many years discontinued, and in place of it Legendre's Theorem has been universally adopted (*An Account of the Observations*, &c. page 244). The triangles in the Indian Survey are stated by Lieut. Colonel Everest to be computed on Legendre's Theorem.

120. If the three angles of a plane triangle be observed, the fact that their sum ought to be equal to two right angles affords a test of the accuracy with which the observations are made. We shall proceed to shew how a test of the accuracy of observations of the angles of a spherical triangle formed on the Earth's surface may be obtained by means of the *spherical excess*.

121. *The area of a spherical triangle formed on the Earth's surface being known in square feet, it is required to establish a rule for computing the spherical excess in seconds.*

Let  $n$  be the number of seconds in the spherical excess,  $s$  the number of square feet in the area of the triangle,  $r$  the number of

feet in the radius of the Earth. Then if  $E$  be the circular measure of the spherical excess,

$$s = Er^2,$$

and 
$$E = \frac{n\pi}{180 \cdot 60 \cdot 60} = \frac{n}{206265} \text{ approximately ;}$$

therefore 
$$s = \frac{nr^2}{206265}.$$

Now by actual measurement the mean length of a degree on the Earth's surface is found to be 365155 feet ; thus

$$\frac{\pi r}{180} = 365155.$$

With the value of  $r$  obtained from this equation it is found by logarithmic calculation, that

$$\log n = \log s - 9.326774.$$

Hence  $n$  is known when  $s$  is known.

This formula is called General Roy's rule, as it was used by him in the Trigonometrical survey of Great Britain and Ireland. Mr Davies, however, claims it for Mr Dalby. (See Hutton's *Course of Mathematics*, by Davies, Vol. II. p. 47).

122. In order to apply General Roy's rule, we must know the area of the spherical triangle. Now the area is not known *exactly* unless the elements of the spherical triangle are known *exactly* ; but it is found that in such cases as occur in practice an approximate value of the area is sufficient. Suppose, for example, that we use the area of the *plane triangle* considered in Legendre's Theorem, instead of the area of the *Spherical Triangle itself* ; then it appears from Art. 109, that the error is approximately denoted by the fraction  $\frac{a^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2}{24r^2}$  of the former area, and this fraction is less than .0001, if the sides do not exceed 100 miles in length. Or again, suppose we want to estimate the influence of *errors* in the angles on the calculation of the area ; let the

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circular measure of an error  
 we ought to use  $\frac{a\beta \sin(C + \epsilon)}{2}$   
 approximately the ratio of the errors in the  
 observations  $h$  will not exceed a few  
 seconds, so that, if  $C$  be not  
 sensible.

123. The following examples are taken from  
 the triangles of the English surveyors. The observed angles  
 are  $42^\circ. 2'. 32''$ ,  $67^\circ. 55'. 39''$ ,  $70^\circ. 16'. 29''$   
 in the observations is required to find the  
 angle  $A$  to be 27404.2 feet.

pression  $\frac{a^2 \sin B \sin C}{2 \sin A}$ , and  
 that  $n = .23$ . Now the sum of the errors  
 and as it ought to have been distributed among  
 of the errors of the observations be distributed  
 among the observations of the observer  
 the opinion of the observer each of the observed  
 angles thus corrected for the

124. An investigation into the form of a triangle,  
 in which the angles will exercise the least  
 and although the reasoning is deserving of the  
 attention angles of a triangle observed  
 required to find the form of sides may be  
 least affected spherical excess of the triangle  
 sufficient accuracy for practical angles does  
 not exceed two excess, let these angles be all

each, so as to make their sum correct. Let  $A, B, C$  be the angles thus furnished by observation and altered if necessary; and let  $\delta A, \delta B$  and  $\delta C$  denote the respective errors of  $A, B$  and  $C$ . Then  $\delta A + \delta B + \delta C = 0$ , because by supposition the sum of  $A, B$  and  $C$  is correct. Considering the triangle as approximately plane, the true value of the side  $c$  is  $\frac{a \sin (C + \delta C)}{\sin (A + \delta A)}$ , that is,  $\frac{a \sin (C + \delta C)}{\sin (A - \delta B - \delta C)}$ .

Now approximately

$$\sin (C + \delta C) = \sin C + \delta C \cos C, \text{ (Plane Trig. Chap. XII.)}$$

$$\sin (A - \delta B - \delta C) = \sin A - (\delta B + \delta C) \cos A.$$

Hence approximately

$$\begin{aligned} c &= \frac{a \sin C}{\sin A} \left\{ 1 + \delta C \cot C \right\} \left\{ 1 - (\delta B + \delta C) \cot A \right\}^{-1} \\ &= \frac{a \sin C}{\sin A} \left\{ 1 + \delta B \cot A + \delta C (\cot C + \cot A) \right\}; \end{aligned}$$

and  $\cot C + \cot A = \frac{\sin (A + C)}{\sin A \sin C} = \frac{\sin B}{\sin A \sin C}$  approximately.

Hence the error of  $c$  is approximately

$$\frac{a \sin B}{\sin^2 A} \delta C + \frac{a \sin C \cos A}{\sin^2 A} \delta B.$$

Similarly the error of  $b$  is approximately

$$\frac{a \sin C}{\sin^2 A} \delta B + \frac{a \sin B \cos A}{\sin^2 A} \delta C.$$

Now it is impossible to assign exactly the signs and magnitudes of the errors  $\delta B$  and  $\delta C$ , so that the reasoning must be vague. It is obvious that to make the error small  $\sin A$  must not be small. And as the sum of  $\delta A, \delta B$  and  $\delta C$  is zero, two of them must have the same sign, and the third the opposite sign; we may therefore consider that it is more probable that any two as  $\delta B$  and  $\delta C$  have *different signs*, than that they have the same sign.

If  $\delta B$  and  $\delta C$  have different signs the errors of  $b$  and  $c$  will be less when  $\cos A$  is positive than when  $\cos A$  is negative; it therefore ought to be less than a right angle. And if  $\delta B$  and  $C$  are probably not very different,  $B$  and  $C$  should be nearly equal. These conditions will be satisfied by a triangle differing not much from an equilateral triangle.

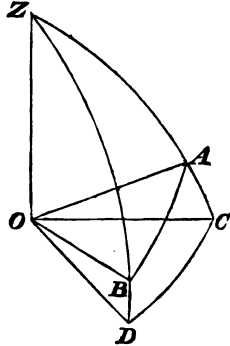
If two angles only,  $A$  and  $B$ , be observed, we obtain the same expressions as before for the errors in  $b$  and  $c$ ; but we have no reason for considering that  $\delta B$  and  $\delta C$  are of different signs rather than of the same sign. In this case then the supposition that  $A$  is a right angle will probably make the errors smallest.

125. The preceding article is taken from the Treatise on Trigonometry in the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*. The least satisfactory part is that in which it is considered that  $\delta B$  and  $\delta C$  may be supposed nearly equal; for since  $\delta A + \delta B + \delta C = 0$ , if we suppose  $\delta B$  and  $\delta C$  nearly equal and of opposite signs, we do in effect suppose  $\delta A = 0$  nearly; thus in observing three angles, we suppose that in one observation a certain error is made, in a second observation the same numerical error is made but with an opposite sign, and in the remaining observation no error is made.

126. We have hitherto proceeded on the supposition that the Earth is a sphere; it is however approximately a spheroid of small eccentricity. For the small corrections which must in consequence be introduced into the calculations we must refer to the works named in Art. 114. One of the results obtained is that the error caused by regarding the Earth as a sphere instead of a spheroid increases with the departure of the triangle from the well-conditioned or equilateral form (*An Account of the Observations, &c.* page 243). Under certain circumstances the spherical excess is the same on a spheroid as on a sphere (*Figure of the Earth*, pages 198 and 215).

127. In geodetical operations it is sometimes required to determine the horizontal angle between two points, which are at a

small angular distance from the horizon, the angle which the objects subtend being known, and also the angles of elevation or depression.



Suppose  $OA$  and  $OB$  the directions in which the two points are seen from  $O$ ; and let the angle  $AOB$  be observed. Let  $OZ$  be the direction perpendicular to the observer's horizon; describe a sphere round  $O$  as a centre, and let vertical planes through  $OA$  and  $OB$  meet the horizon in  $OC$  and  $OD$  respectively; then the angle  $COD$  is required.

Let  $AOB = \theta$ ,  $COD = \theta + x$ ,  $AOC = h$ ,  $BOD = k$ ; from the triangle  $AZB$

$$\cos AZB = \frac{\cos \theta - \cos ZA \cos ZB}{\sin ZA \sin ZB} = \frac{\cos \theta - \sin h \sin k}{\cos h \cos k};$$

and  $\cos AZB = \cos COD = \cos(\theta + x)$ ; thus

$$\cos(\theta + x) = \frac{\cos \theta - \sin h \sin k}{\cos h \cos k}.$$

This formula is exact; by approximation we obtain

$$\cos \theta - x \sin \theta = \frac{\cos \theta - hk}{1 - \frac{1}{2}(h^2 + k^2)};$$

therefore  $x \sin \theta = hk - \frac{1}{2}(h^2 + k^2) \cos \theta$ , nearly,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and} \quad x &= \frac{2hk - (h^2 + k^2) (\cos^2 \frac{1}{2} \theta - \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} \theta)}{2 \sin \theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (h + k)^2 \tan \frac{1}{2} \theta - \frac{1}{2} (h - k)^2 \cot \frac{1}{2} \theta. \end{aligned}$$

This process, by which we find the angle  $COD$  from the angle  $AOB$ , is called *reducing an angle to the horizon*.

## XI. ON SMALL VARIATIONS IN THE PARTS OF A SPHERICAL TRIANGLE, AND ON THE CONNEXION OF FORMULÆ IN PLANE AND SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY.

128. It is sometimes important to know what amount of error will be introduced into one of the calculated parts of a triangle by reason of any small error which may exist in the given parts. We will here consider an example.

129. *A side and the opposite angle of a spherical triangle remain constant, determine the connexion between the small variations of any other pair of elements.*

Suppose  $C$  and  $c$  to remain constant.

(1) Required the connexion between the small variations of the other sides. We suppose  $a$  and  $b$  to denote the sides of one triangle which can be formed with  $C$  and  $c$  as fixed elements, and  $a + \delta a$  and  $b + \delta b$  to denote the sides of another such triangle; then we require the ratio of  $\delta a$  to  $\delta b$  when both are extremely small. We have

$$\cos c = \cos a \cos b + \sin a \sin b \cos C,$$

$$\text{and} \quad \cos c = \cos (a + \delta a) \cos (b + \delta b) + \sin (a + \delta a) \sin (b + \delta b) \cos C;$$

$$\text{also} \quad \cos (a + \delta a) = \cos a - \sin a \delta a, \text{ nearly,}$$

$$\text{and} \quad \sin (a + \delta a) = \sin a + \cos a \delta a, \text{ nearly,}$$



with similar formulæ for  $\cos(b + \delta b)$  and  $\sin(b + \delta b)$ . (See *Plane Trigonometry*, Chap. XII). Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \cos c &= (\cos a - \sin a \delta a)(\cos b - \sin b \delta b) \\ &\quad + (\sin a + \cos a \delta a)(\sin b + \cos b \delta b) \cos C. \end{aligned}$$

Hence by subtraction, if we neglect the product  $\delta a \delta b$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \delta a (\sin a \cos b - \cos a \sin b \cos C) \\ &\quad + \delta b (\sin b \cos a - \cos b \sin a \cos C); \end{aligned}$$

this gives the ratio of  $\delta a$  to  $\delta b$  in terms of  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $C$ . We may express the ratio more simply in terms of  $A$  and  $B$ ; for, dividing by  $\sin a \sin b$ , we get from Art. 44,

$$\frac{\delta a}{\sin a} \cot B \sin C + \frac{\delta b}{\sin b} \cot A \sin C = 0;$$

therefore  $\delta a \cos B + \delta b \cos A = 0$ .

(2) Required the connexion between the small variations of the other angles. In this case we may by means of the polar triangle deduce from the result just found, that

$$\delta A \cos b + \delta B \cos a = 0;$$

this may also be found independently as before.

(3) Required the connexion between the small variations of a side and the opposite angle ( $A$ ,  $a$ ).

Here  $\sin A \sin c = \sin C \sin a$ ,

and  $\sin(A + \delta A) \sin c = \sin C \sin(a + \delta a)$ ;

hence by subtraction

$$\cos A \sin c \delta A = \sin C \cos a \delta a,$$

and therefore  $\delta A \cot A = \delta a \cot a$ .

(4) Required the connexion between the small variations of a side and the adjacent angle ( $a$ ,  $B$ ).

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We have  $\cot C \sin B = \cot c \sin a$   
 proceeding as before we obtain

$$\cot C \cos B \delta B = \cot c \cos a \delta a + \cos B$$

therefore

$$(\cot C \cos B - \cos a \sin B) \delta B = (\cot c$$

$$\text{therefore} \quad -\frac{\cos A}{\sin C} \delta B = \frac{\cos b}{\sin c}$$

$$\text{therefore} \quad \delta B \cos A = -\delta a \cot b$$

130. Some more examples will be posed for solution at the end of this chapter; if of difficulty they are left for the exercise of

131. *From any formula in Spherical Trigonometry, deduce the corresponding formula in Plane Trigonometry.*

Let  $a, \beta, \gamma$  be the lengths of the sides of the spherical triangle, and  $r$  the radius of the sphere, so that  $\frac{a}{r}, \frac{\beta}{r}, \frac{\gamma}{r}$

are the sides of the triangle; expand

the spherical trigonometric formulae which occur in any proposed formulae in spherical trigonometry, in powers of  $\frac{a^2}{r^2}, \frac{\beta^2}{r^2}, \frac{\gamma^2}{r^2}$  respectively; then if we suppose  $r$  to become infinite, we obtain the limiting form of the proposed formulae in Plane Trigonometry.

For example, in Art. 106, from the

$$\cos A = \frac{\cos a \cos b \cos c + \cos a \sin b \sin c \cos A + \cos b \sin a \sin c \cos B + \cos c \sin a \sin b \cos C}{\sin a \sin b \sin c}$$

we deduce

$$\cos A = \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - a^2}{2\beta\gamma} + \frac{\alpha^4 + \beta^4 + \gamma^4 - 2\alpha^2\beta^2 - 2\alpha^2\gamma^2 - 2\beta^2\gamma^2}{24r^2}$$

now suppose  $r$  to become infinite; then ultimately

$$\cos A = \frac{\beta^2 + \gamma^2 - \alpha^2}{2\beta\gamma};$$

and this is the expression for the cosine of the angle of a plane triangle in terms of the sides.

Again, in Art. 110, from the formula

$$\frac{\sin A}{\sin B} = \frac{\sin a}{\sin b}$$

we deduce

$$\frac{\sin A}{\sin B} = \frac{a}{\beta} + \frac{a(\beta^2 - a^2)}{6\beta r^2} + \dots;$$

now suppose  $r$  to become infinite; then ultimately

$$\frac{\sin A}{\sin B} = \frac{a}{\beta},$$

that is, in a plane triangle the sides are as the sines of the opposite angles.

#### EXAMPLES.

1. In a spherical triangle, if  $C$  and  $c$  remain constant while  $a$  and  $b$  receive the small increments  $\delta a$  and  $\delta b$  respectively, shew that

$$\frac{\delta a}{\sqrt{(1 - n^2 \sin^2 a)}} + \frac{\delta b}{\sqrt{(1 - n^2 \sin^2 b)}} = 0 \text{ where } n = \frac{\sin C}{\sin c}.$$

2. If  $C$  and  $c$  remain constant, and a small change be made in  $a$ , find the consequent changes in the other parts of the triangle. Find also the change in the area.

3. Supposing  $A$  and  $c$  to remain constant, prove the following equations, connecting the small variations of pairs of the other elements,

$$\begin{aligned} \sin C \delta b &= \sin a \delta B, & \delta b \sin C &= -\delta C \tan a, & \delta a \tan C &= \delta B \sin a, \\ \delta a \tan C &= -\delta C \tan a, & \delta b \cos C &= \delta a, & \delta B \cos a &= -\delta C. \end{aligned}$$

EXAM

4. Supposing  $b$  and  $c$  to remain constant, deduce the equations connecting the small changes in  $B$  and  $C$  with the small change in  $A$ ,  
 elements,

$$\delta B \tan C = \delta C \tan B,$$

$$\delta a = \sin c \sin B \delta A,$$

5. Supposing  $B$  and  $C$  to remain constant, deduce the equations connecting the small changes in  $b$  and  $c$  with the small change in  $A$ ,  
 other elements,

$$\delta b \tan c = \delta c \tan b,$$

$$\delta A = \delta a \sin b \sin C,$$

6. From the formula  $\sin \frac{C}{2} = \frac{a \sin B \sin C}{2 \sin A}$ , deduce the formula for the area of a spherical triangle, when the radius is increased.

7. If  $A$  and  $C$  are constant quantities, shew that  $a$  will be in the same ratio to  $b$  as  $c$  is less or greater than a quadrant.

8. Two spherical triangles differ slightly in position; prove that the change in the product  $\cos ABb \cos BCc \cos CAa$  is equal to  $\delta A$ .

9. What formulæ in Plane Trigonometry are Napier's Analogies; and what from them can be deduced?

10. From the formula

$$\cos \frac{c}{2} \cos \frac{A+B}{2} = \cos \frac{a}{2} \cos \frac{A+B}{2}$$

deduce the area of a plane triangle in terms of the sides and of the angles.

11. What result is obtained from the formula  $\cos \frac{c}{2} \cos \frac{A+B}{2} = \cos \frac{a}{2} \cos \frac{A+B}{2}$  supposing the radius of the sphere is infinite?

## XII. POLYHEDRONS.

132. A polyhedron is a solid bounded by any number of plane rectilinear figures which are called its faces. A polyhedron is said to be *regular* when its faces are similar and equal regular polygons, and its solid angles equal to one another.

133. If  $S$  be the number of solid angles in any polyhedron,  $F$  the number of its faces,  $E$  the number of its edges, then  $S + F = E + 2$ .

Take any point within the polyhedron as centre, and describe a sphere of radius  $r$ , and draw lines from the centre to each of the angular points of the polyhedron; let the points in which these lines meet the surface of the sphere be joined by arcs of great circles, so that the surface of the sphere is divided into as many polygons as the polyhedron has faces.

Let  $s$  denote the sum of the angles of any one of these polygons,  $m$  the number of its sides; then the area of the polygon is  $r^2 \{s - (m - 2)\pi\}$  by Art. 99. The sum of the areas of all the polygons is the surface of the sphere, that is,  $4\pi r^2$ . Hence since the number of the polygons is  $F$ , we obtain

$$4\pi = \Sigma s - \pi \Sigma m + 2F\pi.$$

Now  $\Sigma s$  denotes the sum of all the angles of the polygons, and is therefore equal to  $2\pi \times$  the number of solid angles, that is, to  $2\pi S$ ; and  $\Sigma m$  is equal to the number of all the sides of all the polygons, that is, to  $2E$ , since every edge gives rise to an arc which is common to two polygons. Therefore

$$4\pi = 2\pi S - 2\pi E + 2F\pi;$$

therefore

$$S + F = E + 2.$$

134. *There can be only five regular polyhedrons.*

Let  $m$  be the number of sides in each face of a regular polyhedron,  $n$  the number of plane angles in each solid angle; then the entire number of plane angles is expressed by  $mF$ , or  $nS$ , or  $2E$ ; thus

$$mF = nS = 2E, \text{ and } S + F = E + 2;$$

from these equations we obtain

$$S = \frac{4m}{2(m+n) - mn}, \quad E = \frac{2mn}{2(m+n) - mn}, \quad F = \frac{4n}{2(m+n) - mn}.$$

These expressions must be positive integers, we must therefore have  $2(m+n)$  greater than  $mn$ ; therefore

$$\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n} \text{ must be greater than } \frac{1}{2};$$

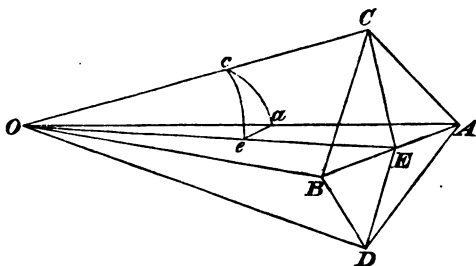
but  $n$  cannot be less than 3, so that  $\frac{1}{n}$  cannot be greater than  $\frac{1}{3}$ , and therefore  $\frac{1}{m}$  must be greater than  $\frac{1}{6}$ ; and as  $m$  must be an integer and cannot be less than 3, the only admissible values of  $m$  are 3, 4, 5. It will be found on trial that the only values of  $m$  and  $n$  which satisfy all the necessary conditions are the following; each regular polyhedron derives its name from the number of its plane faces.

$m$	$n$	$S$	$E$	$F$	Name of regular Polyhedron.
3	3	4	6	4	Tetrahedron or regular Pyramid.
4	3	8	12	6	Hexahedron or Cube.
3	4	6	12	8	Octahedron.
5	3	20	30	12	Dodecahedron.
3	5	12	30	20	Icosahedron.

135. *The sum of all the plane angles which form the solid angles of any polyhedron is  $2(S-2)\pi$ .*

For if  $m$  denote the number of sides in any face of the polyhedron, the sum of the interior angles of that face is  $(m-2)\pi$  by Euclid I. 32, Cor. 1. Hence the sum of all the interior angles of all the faces is  $\Sigma(m-2)\pi$ , that is  $\Sigma m\pi - 2F\pi$ , that is  $2(E-F)\pi$ , that is  $2(S-2)\pi$ .

136. *To find the inclination of two adjacent faces of a regular polyhedron.*



Let  $AB$  be the edge common to the two adjacent faces,  $C$  and  $D$  the centres of the faces; bisect  $AB$  in  $E$  and join  $CE$  and  $DE$ ;  $CE$  and  $DE$  will be perpendicular to  $AB$ , and the angle  $CED$  is the angle of inclination of the two adjacent faces; we shall denote it by  $I$ . In the plane containing  $CE$  and  $DE$  draw  $CO$  and  $DO$  perpendicular to  $CE$  and  $DE$  respectively, and meeting in  $O$ ; about  $O$  as centre describe a sphere meeting  $OA$ ,  $OC$ ,  $OE$  in  $a$ ,  $c$ ,  $e$  respectively, so that  $cae$  forms a spherical triangle. Since  $AB$  is perpendicular to  $CE$  and  $DE$ , it is perpendicular to the plane  $CED$ , therefore the plane  $AOB$  which contains  $AB$  is perpendicular to the plane  $CED$ ; hence the angle  $cea$  of the spherical triangle is a right angle. Let  $m$  be the number of sides in each face of the polyhedron,  $n$  the number of the plane angles which form each solid angle. Then the angle  $ace = ACE = \frac{2\pi}{2m} = \frac{\pi}{m}$ ; and the angle

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$cae$  is half one of the  $n$  equal angles for that is,  $cae = \frac{2\pi}{2n} = \frac{\pi}{n}$ . From the right-

$$\cos cae = \cos cO$$

that is  $\cos \frac{\pi}{n} = \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$

therefore  $\sin \frac{I}{2} = \frac{\cos \frac{\pi}{n}}{\sin \frac{\pi}{m}}$

137. *To find the radii of the spheres of a regular polyhedron.*

Let the edge  $AB = a$ , let  $OC = r$  the radius of the inscribed sphere, circumscribed sphere. Then

$$CE = AE \cot ACE = \frac{a}{2} \cot \frac{\pi}{m},$$

$$r = CE \tan CEO = CE \tan \frac{I}{2}$$

also  $r = R \cos aOc = R \cot eca \cot$

therefore  $R = r \tan \frac{\pi}{m} \tan \frac{\pi}{n} = \frac{a}{2} \tan \frac{I}{2} \tan$

138. *To find the surface and volu*

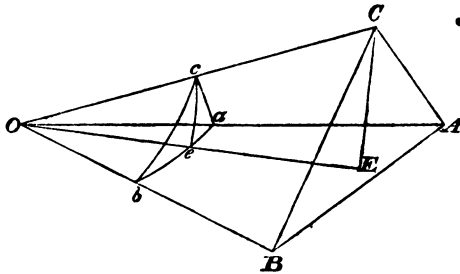
The area of one face of the pol

therefore the surface of the polyhedron



Also the volume of the pyramid which has one face of the polyhedron for base and  $O$  for vertex is  $\frac{r}{3} \cdot \frac{ma^2}{4} \cot \frac{\pi}{m}$ , and therefore the volume of the polyhedron is  $\frac{mFra^2}{12} \cot \frac{\pi}{m}$ .

139. To find the volume of a parallelepiped in terms of its edges and their inclinations to one another.



Let the edges be  $OA = a$ ,  $OB = b$ ,  $OC = c$ ; let the inclinations be  $BOC = \alpha$ ,  $COA = \beta$ ,  $AOB = \gamma$ . Draw  $CE$  perpendicular to the plane  $AOB$  meeting it in  $E$ . Describe a sphere with  $O$  as a centre, meeting  $OA$ ,  $OB$ ,  $OC$ ,  $OE$  in  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $e$  respectively.

The volume of the parallelepiped is equal to the product of its base and altitude  $= ab \sin \gamma \cdot CE = abc \sin \gamma \sin cOe$ . The spherical triangle  $cae$  is right-angled at  $e$ ; thus

$$\sin cOe = \sin cOa \sin cae = \sin \beta \sin cab,$$

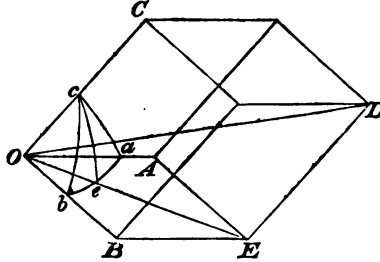
and from the spherical triangle  $cab$

$$\sin cab = \frac{\sqrt{(1 - \cos^2 \alpha - \cos^2 \beta - \cos^2 \gamma + 2 \cos \alpha \cos \beta \cos \gamma)}}{\sin \beta \sin \gamma};$$

therefore the volume of the parallelepiped

$$= abc \sqrt{(1 - \cos^2 \alpha - \cos^2 \beta - \cos^2 \gamma + 2 \cos \alpha \cos \beta \cos \gamma)}.$$

140. *To find the diagonal of a parallelopiped in terms of the three edges which it meets and their inclinations to one another.*



Let the edges be  $OA = a$ ,  $OB = b$ ,  $OC = c$ ; let the inclinations be  $BOC = \alpha$ ,  $COA = \beta$ ,  $AOB = \gamma$ . Let  $OD$  be the diagonal required, and let  $OE$  be the diagonal of the face  $OAB$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} OD^2 &= OE^2 + ED^2 + 2OE \cdot ED \cos COE \\ &= a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \cos \gamma + c^2 + 2cOE \cos COE. \end{aligned}$$

Describe a sphere with  $O$  as centre meeting  $OA$ ,  $OB$ ,  $OC$ ,  $OE$  in  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $e$  respectively; then (see example 14, Chap. iv.)

$$\begin{aligned} \cos cOe &= \frac{\cos cOb \sin aOe + \cos cOa \sin bOe}{\sin aOb} \\ &= \frac{\cos \alpha \sin aOe + \cos \beta \sin bOe}{\sin \gamma}; \end{aligned}$$

therefore

$$OD^2 = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + 2ab \cos \gamma + \frac{2cOE}{\sin \gamma} (\cos \alpha \sin aOe + \cos \beta \sin bOe),$$

$$\text{and} \quad OE \sin aOe = b \sin \gamma, \quad OE \sin bOe = a \sin \gamma;$$

$$\text{therefore} \quad OD^2 = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + 2ab \cos \gamma + 2bc \cos \alpha + 2ca \cos \beta.$$

141. *To find the volume of a tetrahedron.*

A tetrahedron is one-sixth of a parallelopiped which has the same altitude and its base double that of the tetrahedron; thus if

the edges and their inclinations are given we can take one-sixth of the expression for the volume in Art. 139. The volume of a tetrahedron may also be expressed in terms of its six edges; for in the figure of Art. 139 let  $BC = a'$ ,  $CA = b'$ ,  $AB = c'$ ; then .

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{b'^2 + c'^2 - a'^2}{2bc}, \quad \cos \beta = \frac{c'^2 + a'^2 - b'^2}{2ca}, \quad \cos \gamma = \frac{a'^2 + b'^2 - c'^2}{2ab},$$

and if these values are substituted for  $\cos \alpha$ ,  $\cos \beta$ , and  $\cos \gamma$  in the expression obtained in Art. 139, the volume of the tetrahedron will be expressed in terms of its six edges.

## EXAMPLES.

1. If  $I$  denote the inclination of two adjacent faces of a regular polyhedron, shew that  $\cos I = \frac{1}{3}$  in the tetrahedron,  $= 0$  in the cube,  $= -\frac{1}{3}$  in the octahedron,  $= -\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{5}$  in the dodecahedron, and  $= -\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{5}$  in the icosahedron.

2. With the notation of Art. 136, shew that the radius of the sphere which touches one face of a regular polyhedron and all the adjacent faces produced is  $\frac{1}{3} a \cot \frac{\pi}{m} \cot \frac{1}{3} I$ .

3. A sphere touches one face of a regular tetrahedron and the other three faces produced; find its radius.

4. If  $a$  and  $b$  are the radii of the spheres inscribed in and described about a regular tetrahedron, shew that  $b = 3a$ .

5. If  $a$  is the radius of a sphere inscribed in a regular tetrahedron, and  $R$  the radius of the sphere which touches the edges, shew that  $R^2 = 3a^2$ .

6. If  $a$  is the radius of a sphere inscribed in a regular tetrahedron, and  $R'$  the radius of the sphere which touches one face and the others produced, shew that  $R' = 2a$ .

7. If a cube and an octahedron be described about a given sphere, the sphere described about these polyhedrons will be the same; and conversely.

8. If a dodecahedron and an icosahedron be described about a given sphere, the sphere described about these polyhedrons will be the same; and conversely.

9. A regular tetrahedron and a regular octahedron are inscribed in the same sphere; compare the radii of the spheres which can be inscribed in the two solids.

10. The sum of the squares of the four diagonals of a parallelepiped is equal to four times the sum of the squares of the edges.

11. If with each angular point of any parallelepiped as centres equal spheres be described, the sum of the intercepted portions of the parallelepiped will be equal in volume to one of the spheres.

12. A regular octahedron is inscribed in a cube so that the corners of the octahedron are in the centres of the faces of the cube; prove that the volume of the cube is six times that of the octahedron.

13. It is not possible to fill any given space with a number of regular polyhedrons of the same kind, except cubes; but this may be done by means of tetrahedrons and octahedrons which have equal faces, by using twice as many of the former as of the latter.

14. A spherical triangle is formed on the surface of a sphere of radius  $\rho$ ; its angular points are joined, forming thus a pyramid with the lines joining them with the centres; shew that the volume of the pyramid is

$$\frac{1}{3} \rho^3 \sqrt{(\tan r \tan r_1 \tan r_2 \tan r_3)}$$

where  $r, r_1, r_2, r_3$  are the radii of the inscribed and escribed circles of the triangle.

15. The angular points of a regular tetrahedron inscribed in a sphere of radius  $r$  being taken as poles, four equal small circles of the sphere are described, so that each circle touches the other

three. Shew that the area of the surface bounded by each circle is  $2\pi r^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)$ .

16. If  $O$  be any point within a spherical triangle  $ABC$ , the product of the sines of any two sides and the sine of the included angle

$$= \sin AO \sin BO \sin CO \left\{ \begin{aligned} &\cot AO \sin BOC \\ &+ \cot BO \sin COA + \cot CO \sin AOB \end{aligned} \right\}.$$

XIII. MISCELLANEOUS PROPOSITIONS.

142. *To find the equation to a small circle of the sphere.*

Let  $O$  be the pole of a small circle,  $S$  a fixed point on the sphere,  $SX$  a fixed great circle of the sphere. Let  $OS = a$ ,  $OSX = \beta$ ; then the position of  $O$  is determined by means of these angular co-ordinates  $a$  and  $\beta$ . Let  $P$  be any point on the circumference of the small circle,  $PS = \theta$ ,  $PSX = \phi$ , so that  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  are the angular co-ordinates of  $P$ . Let  $OP = r$ . Then from the triangle  $OSP$

$$\cos r = \cos a \cos \theta + \sin a \sin \theta \cos (\phi - \beta) \dots \dots \dots (1);$$

this gives a relation between the angular co-ordinates of any point on the circumference of the circle.

If the circle be a great circle then  $r = \frac{\pi}{2}$ ; thus the equation becomes

$$0 = \cos a \cos \theta + \sin a \sin \theta \cos (\phi - \beta) \dots \dots \dots (2).$$

It will be observed that the angular co-ordinates here used are analogous to the *latitude* and *longitude* which serve to determine the positions of places on the Earth's surface;  $\theta$  is the *complement of the latitude* and  $\phi$  is the *longitude*.

143. *To find the locus of the vertex of a spherical triangle of given base and area.*

MISCELLANEOUS PROPO

Let  $AB$  be the given base,  $= c$  su  
 Since the area is given the spherical  
 it by  $E$ ; then by Art. 103,

$$\cot \frac{1}{2} E = \cot \frac{1}{2} \theta \cot \frac{1}{2} c \cos \theta$$

therefore  $\sin \left( \phi - \frac{1}{2} E \right) = \cot \frac{1}{2} \theta \cot \frac{1}{2} c \cos \theta$

therefore  $2 \cot \frac{1}{2} c \sin \frac{1}{2} E \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \sin$

therefore

$$\cos \theta \cot \frac{1}{2} c \sin \frac{1}{2} E + \sin \theta \cos \left( \phi - \frac{1}{2} E \right)$$

Comparing this with equation (1) of  
 see that the required locus is a circle. If  
 co-ordinates of its pole, we have

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{1}{\cot \frac{1}{2} c \sin \frac{1}{2} E} = \frac{1}{\sin \frac{1}{2} E}$$

$$\beta = \frac{1}{2} E - \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

It may be presumed from symmet  
 circle is in the great circle which bis  
 and this presumption is easily verified  
 that great circle is

$$0 = \cos \theta \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{c}{2} \right) + \sin \theta \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$$

and the values  $\theta = \alpha$ ,  $\phi = \beta$  satisfy thi

144. To find the angular distance  
 inscribed and circumscribed circles of a tr

Let  $P$  denote the pole of the inscrib  
 of the circumscribed circle of a triangl  
 $PAB = \frac{1}{2} A$ , and by Art. 92  $QAB =$   
 $= \cos \frac{1}{2} (B - C)$ ; and

$$\cos PQ = \cos PA \cos QA + \sin PA \sin$$

Now, by Art. 62 (see figure of Art. 89),

$$\cos PA = \cos PE \cos AE = \cos r \cos (s - a),$$

$$\sin PA = \frac{\sin PE}{\sin PAE} = \frac{\sin r}{\sin \frac{1}{2}A};$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} \cos PQ &= \cos R \cos r \cos (s - a) + \sin R \sin r \cos \frac{1}{2}(B - C) \operatorname{cosec} \frac{1}{2}A \\ &= \cos R \cos r \cos (s - a) + \sin R \sin r \sin \frac{1}{2}(b + c) \operatorname{cosec} \frac{1}{2}a, \end{aligned}$$

(Art. 54);

$$\text{therefore } \frac{\cos PQ}{\cos R \sin r} = \cot r \cos (s - a) + \tan R \sin \frac{1}{2}(b + c) \operatorname{cosec} \frac{1}{2}a.$$

$$\text{Now } \cot r = \frac{\sin s}{n}, \quad \tan R = \frac{2 \sin \frac{1}{2}a \sin \frac{1}{2}b \sin \frac{1}{2}c}{n},$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{therefore } \frac{\cos PQ}{\cos R \sin r} &= \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \sin s \cos (s - a) + 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(b + c) \sin \frac{1}{2}b \sin \frac{1}{2}c \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2n} (\sin a + \sin b + \sin c). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } \left( \frac{\cos PQ}{\cos R \sin r} \right)^2 - 1 &= \frac{1}{4n^2} (\sin a + \sin b + \sin c)^2 - 1 \\ &= (\cot r + \tan R)^2 \text{ by (Art. 94);} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{therefore } \cos^2 PQ = \cos^2 R \sin^2 r + \cos^2 (R - r),$$

$$\text{and } \sin^2 PQ = \sin^2 (R - r) - \cos^2 R \sin^2 r.$$

145. *To find the angular distance between the pole of the circumscribed circle and the pole of one of the escribed circles of a triangle.*

Let  $Q$  denote the pole of the circumscribed circle, and  $Q_1$  the pole of the escribed circle opposite to the angle  $A$ . Then it may be shewn that  $QBQ_1 = \frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{2}(C - A)$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} \cos QQ_1 &= \cos R \cos r_1 \cos (s - c) - \sin R \sin r_1 \sin \frac{1}{2}(C - A) \sec \frac{1}{2}B \\ &= \cos R \cos r_1 \cos (s - c) - \sin R \sin r_1 \sin \frac{1}{2}(c - a) \operatorname{cosec} \frac{1}{2}b. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\cos QQ_1}{\sin r_1 \cos R} = \cot r_1 \cos (s - c) - \tan R \sin \frac{1}{2}(c - a) \operatorname{cosec} \frac{1}{2}b;$$

MISCELLANEOUS PRO

by reducing as in the preceding article the last equation becomes

$$\frac{1}{2n} (\sin b + \sin c -$$

hence  $\left( \frac{\cos QQ_1}{\cos R \sin r_1} \right)^2 - 1 = (\tan$

therefore  $\cos^2 QQ_1 = \cos^2$

and  $\sin^2 QQ_1 = \sin^2$

146. *The arc which passes thro: sides of any triangle upon a given ba. in a fixed point, the distance of which base is a quadrant.*

Let  $ABC$  be any triangle,  $E$  the middle point of  $AB$ ; let the arc produced meet  $BC$  produced in  $Q$ . T

$$\frac{\sin BQ}{\sin BF} = \frac{\sin BFQ}{\sin BQF}, \quad \frac{\sin}{\sin}$$

therefore  $\frac{\sin BQ}{\sin AQ} = \frac{\sin A\zeta}{\sin B\zeta}$

similarly  $\frac{\sin CQ}{\sin AQ} = \frac{\sin A\zeta}{\sin C\zeta}$

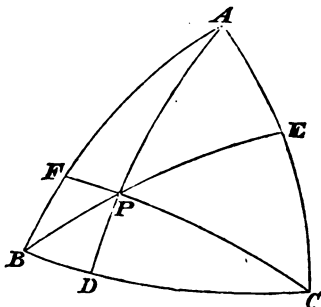
therefore  $\sin BQ = \sin CQ$ ; theref

Hence if  $D$  be the middle point

$$DQ = \frac{1}{2} (BQ + CQ)$$

147. *If three arcs be drawn fr. triangle through any point to meet th of the sines of the alternate segments o*





Let  $P$  be any point, and let arcs be drawn from the angles  $A, B, C$  passing through  $P$  and meeting the opposite sides in  $D, E, F$ . Then

$$\frac{\sin BD}{\sin BP} = \frac{\sin BPD}{\sin BDP}, \quad \frac{\sin CD}{\sin CP} = \frac{\sin CPD}{\sin CDP},$$

therefore 
$$\frac{\sin BD}{\sin CD} = \frac{\sin BPD}{\sin CPD} \frac{\sin BP}{\sin CP}.$$

Similar expressions may be found for  $\frac{\sin CE}{\sin AE}$  and  $\frac{\sin AF}{\sin BF}$ ; and hence it follows obviously that

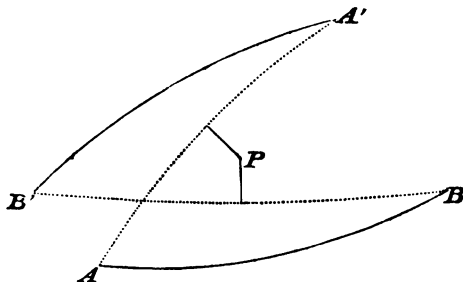
$$\frac{\sin BD}{\sin CD} \frac{\sin CE}{\sin AE} \frac{\sin AF}{\sin BF} = 1;$$

therefore  $\sin BD \sin CE \sin AF = \sin CD \sin AE \sin BF$ .

148. Conversely, when the points  $D, E, F$  in the sides of a spherical triangle are such that the relation given in the preceding article holds, the arcs which join these points with the opposite angles respectively *pass through a common point*. Hence the following propositions may be established:—the perpendiculars from the angles of a spherical triangle upon the opposite sides meet in a point; the lines which bisect the angles of a spherical triangle meet in a point; the lines which join the angles of a spherical triangle with the middle points of the opposite sides meet in a point; the lines which join the angles of a spherical

triangle with the points where the inscribed circle touches the opposite sides respectively meet in a point.

149. If  $AB$  and  $A'B'$  be any two equal arcs, and the arcs  $AA'$  and  $BB'$  be bisected at right angles by arcs meeting in  $P$ , then  $AB$  and  $A'B'$  subtend equal angles at  $P$ .



For  $PA = PA'$  and  $PB = PB'$ ; hence the sides of the triangle  $PAB$  are respectively equal to those of  $PA'B'$ ; therefore the angle  $APB =$  the angle  $A'PB'$ .

This simple proposition has an important application to the motion of a rigid body of which one point is fixed. For conceive a sphere capable of motion round its centre which is fixed; then it appears from this proposition that any two fixed points on the sphere, as  $A$  and  $B$ , can be brought into any other positions, as  $A'$  and  $B'$ , by rotation round an axis passing through the centre of the sphere and a certain point  $P$ . Hence it may be inferred that any change of position in a rigid body, of which one point is fixed, may be effected by rotation round some axis through the fixed point.

(De Morgan's *Differential and Integral Calculus*, page 489).

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES.

1. Find the locus of the vertices of all right-angled spherical triangles having the same hypotenuse; and from the equation obtained, prove that the locus is a circle when the radius of the sphere is infinite.

2.  $AB$  is an arc of a great circle on the surface of a sphere,  $C$  its middle point; shew that the locus of the point  $P$  such that the angle  $APC =$  the angle  $BPC$  consists of two great circles at right angles to one another. Explain this when the triangle becomes plane.

3. A point  $P$  being taken on the surface of a sphere, let  $\psi$  and  $\psi'$  denote its spherical distances from two given points; if  $m \cos \psi + m' \cos \psi'$  is constant where  $m$  and  $m'$  are constant, shew that the locus of  $P$  is a circle.

4. On a given arc of a sphere, spherical triangles of equal area are described; shew that the locus of the angular point opposite to the given arc is defined by the equation

$$\tan^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\tan(a + \phi)}{\sin \theta} \right\} + \tan^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\tan(a - \phi)}{\sin \theta} \right\} \\ + \tan^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\tan \theta}{\sin(a + \phi)} \right\} + \tan^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\tan \theta}{\sin(a - \phi)} \right\} = \beta,$$

where  $2a$  is the length of the given arc,  $\theta$  the arc of the great circle drawn from any point  $P$  in the locus perpendicular to the given arc,  $\phi$  the inclination of the great circle on which  $\theta$  is measured to the great circle bisecting the given arc at right angles, and  $\beta$  a constant.

5. If  $\theta, \phi, \psi$  denote the distances from the angles  $A, B, C$  respectively of the point of intersection of arcs bisecting the angles of the spherical triangle  $ABC$ , shew that

$$\cos \theta \sin(b - c) + \cos \phi \sin(c - a) + \cos \psi \sin(a - b) = 0.$$

6. If  $A', B', C'$  be the poles of the sides  $BC, CA, AB$  of a spherical triangle  $ABC$ , shew that the great circles  $AA', BB', CC'$  meet in a point  $P$ , such that

$$\cos PA \cos BC = \cos PB \cos CA = \cos PC \cos AB.$$

7. If  $O$  be the point of intersection of arcs  $AD, BE, CF$  drawn from the angles of a triangle perpendicular to the opposite

sides and meeting them in  $D, E, F$  respectively

$$\frac{\tan AD}{\tan OD'} = \frac{\tan BE}{\tan OE'}$$

are respectively equal to

$$1 + \frac{\cos A}{\cos B' \cos C'}, \quad 1 + \frac{\cos B}{\cos A \cos C'}$$

8. If  $p, q, r$  be the arcs of great circles perpendicular to the sides of a triangle perpendicular to the sides  $(\beta, \beta'), (\gamma, \gamma')$  the segments into which they divide the sides, shew that

$$\tan a \tan a' = \tan \beta \tan \beta'$$

and 
$$\frac{\cos p}{\cos a \cos a'} = \frac{\cos q}{\cos \beta \cos \beta'}$$

9. In a spherical triangle if arcs be drawn from the middle points of the opposite sides perpendicular to the one which bisects the side

$$\frac{\sin a}{\sin a'} = 2 \cos \frac{a}{2}$$

10. The arc of a great circle bisecting the side of a spherical triangle cuts  $BC$  produced in

$$\cos AQ \sin \frac{a}{2} = \sin \frac{c-l}{2}$$

11. If  $ABCD$  be a spherical quadrilateral, the sides  $AB, CD$  when produced meet in  $E$ , the ratio of the sines of the arcs drawn from  $E$  perpendicular to the diagonals of the quadrilateral is the same as the ratio from  $F$ .

12. If  $ABCD$  be a spherical quadrilateral, the sides  $DC$  are produced to meet in  $P$ , and the diagonals  $AC, BD$  intersect in  $R$ , then  $\sin AB \sin CD \cos P \sim \sin AD \sin BC \cos R$

13. If the arcs joining the extremities of the sides of a spherical triangle with the middle points of the opposite sides be equal, the triangle is isosceles.

14. The arc  $AP$  of a circle of the same radius as the sphere is equal to the greater of two sides of a spherical triangle, and the arc  $AQ$  taken in the same direction is equal to the less; the sine  $PM$  of  $AP$  is divided in  $E$ , so that  $\frac{EM}{PM}$  = the natural cosine of the angle included by the two sides, and  $EZ$  is drawn parallel to the tangent to the circle at  $Q$ . Shew that the remaining side of the spherical triangle is equal to the arc  $QPZ$ .

15. If through any point  $P$  within a spherical triangle  $ABC$  great circles be drawn from the angular points  $A, B, C$  to meet the opposite sides in  $a, b, c$  respectively, prove that

$$\frac{\sin Pa \cos PA}{\sin Aa} + \frac{\sin Pb \cos PB}{\sin Bb} + \frac{\sin Pc \cos PC}{\sin Cc} = 1.$$

16.  $A$  and  $B$  are two places on the Earth's surface on the same side of the equator,  $A$  being further from the equator than  $B$ . If the bearing of  $A$  from  $B$  be more nearly due East than it is from any other place in the same latitude as  $B$ , what is the bearing of  $B$  from  $A$ ?

17. If the tangent of the radius of the circle described about a spherical triangle is equal to twice the tangent of the radius of the circle inscribed in the triangle, the triangle is equilateral.

18. From the result given in example 18 of Chapter v. infer the possibility of a regular dodecahedron.

THE END.

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